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# *The* CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL *Review*

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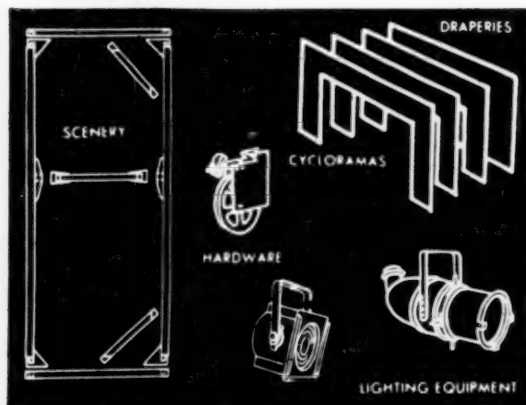
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## SCHOOL INTERESTS OF PREADOLESCENTS

By Sister Mary Amatora, O.S.F.\*

WHILE TEACHERS GENERALLY are sincere in their efforts to have their pupils achieve maximum learning, few stop to investigate the school interests of the boys and girls they teach and to relate these to efficiency in learning. Studies in children's interests may be the key to getting at some of the underlying problems with which the teacher is daily confronted in her efforts to have the children reach their maximum achievement. Ordinarily, children are not going to do their best in any area of school learning when they lack an interest in that subject.

### PURPOSE AND METHOD

Studies of school interests based upon check lists, inventories, and questionnaires inherently contain an element of suggestion. The writer is of the opinion that the true interests of boys and girls would be more readily discovered if they were given their freedom to express their choice or choices in some way other than by checking a printed form.

In order to tap the precise things connected with school that are of interest to boys and girls in their preadolescent years, it was decided to use a sample of fifth- and sixth-grade pupils from widely separated geographical areas of the United States. Accordingly, private schools in a number of states were contacted. Ten schools, ranging in size from 127 to 956 pupils, in California, Washington, Missouri, Minnesota, Indiana, Louisiana, North Carolina, Texas, Pennsylvania, and Maine were used. These schools were located in cities or towns ranging in population from 2,000 to 800,000.

A form letter was sent to the principals of the co-operating schools giving specific directions. These requested that pupils write age, grade, sex, date, school, city, and state at the head of the paper. Following this, without any prediscussion concerning interests and without any interpupil communication, the teacher or principal was to ask the pupils the question: "What are three of your greatest interests connected with school life, in order of importance to you?"

---

\* Sister Mary Amatora, O.S.F., Ph.D., is chairman of the Department of Psychology, Saint Francis College, Fort Wayne, Indiana.

## ANALYSES OF DATA

From a total of 636 papers received, 14 were eliminated because of illegibility or incomplete data, leaving 622 for the investigation. Usable replies included those of 180 boys and 183 girls in the sixth grade and 121 boys and 138 girls in the fifth grade.

*Age Analysis*

Age range for sixth-grade boys was from 10 to 13 years, with a mean age of  $11.4 \pm 0.7$ ; and for the sixth-grade girls, from 10 to 13 years inclusive, with a mean age of  $11.2 \pm 0.5$ . Fifth-grade boys ranged in age from 9 to 13 years, with a mean age of  $10.4 \pm 0.6$ ; while the girls ranged in age from 8 to 12 years, with a mean age of  $10.1 \pm 0.4$ .

*Analyses of Boys' School Interests*

The interests expressed by preadolescent boys relative to school life are presented in Table 1. A brief glance at this table indicates at once wherein lay the greatest interests of these boys. Among first choices of interest, arithmetic leads the list, with more than one-fourth of all the boys in the study both in the sixth grade and in the fifth grade expressing this as their first choice of interest. Following this, one finds reading, spelling, and history claiming 12.3 per cent, 12.1 per cent, and 11.3 per cent of the total boys, respectively.

Taking a look at Columns 4, 5, and 6 of this table, one readily perceives the strengths of interests among second choices for these preadolescent boys. The four school subjects achieving highest interest among second choices are spelling, with a total of 14.7 per cent; arithmetic, 11.9 per cent; history, 11.6 per cent; and reading, 10.7 per cent.

Among third choices of interest one finds, as given in Columns 7, 8, and 9, for fifth- and sixth-grade boys, history ranking high with 14.3 per cent, followed by reading, 13.6 per cent. Spelling ranks relatively high for sixth-grade boys with 12.2 per cent, but shows a considerable drop for fifth-grade boys, 6.1 per cent.

When the totals of columns 3, 6, and 9 are combined, one finds a total of 44.2 per cent of all the boys expressing arithmetic either as their first, second, or third choice. Following this, there is a considerable drop, with three other subjects ranking somewhat lower yet claiming the interest of more than a third of these boys, namely,

TABLE 1  
FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD CHOICES OF SCHOOL INTERESTS  
OF 301 PREADOLESCENT BOYS

ITEM CATEGORIES	FIRST CHOICE			SECOND CHOICE			THIRD CHOICE		
	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL
	6	5		6	5		6	5	
Arithmetic	25.4	26.4	25.9	8.3	15.5	11.9	9.3	3.5	6.4
Art	10.3	7.0	8.7	5.2	4.1	4.7	6.4	4.4	5.4
History	9.7	12.8	11.3	13.8	9.4	11.6	14.6	14.0	14.3
English	0.6	0.8	0.7	4.2	2.4	3.3	4.1	9.6	6.9
Geography	5.5	6.6	6.0	8.6	12.6	10.6	6.3	12.3	9.3
Music	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.6	1.3	0.6	2.6	1.6
Reading	13.0	11.6	12.3	10.0	11.4	10.7	10.5	16.7	13.6
Religion	5.4	5.4	5.4	7.3	5.7	6.5	8.7	7.9	8.3
Science	2.2	1.5	1.8	6.8	2.4	4.6	5.8	3.5	4.7
Spelling	14.1	10.1	12.1	15.6	13.8	14.7	12.2	6.1	9.2
Writing	1.1	1.5	1.3	0.5	1.6	1.1	3.5	2.6	3.0
Sports	2.7	5.4	4.0	5.7	6.6	6.1	8.1	2.6	5.3
Friends	1.1	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.8	1.5
Teachers	1.1	0.8	1.0	0.5	1.6	1.0	0.6	0.9	0.7
Recess Period	1.1	2.3	1.7	5.2	1.6	3.4	1.7	4.4	3.0
Lunch Period	1.1	0.8	1.0	0.5	1.6	1.0	0.6	1.8	1.2
Activities	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.2	0.9	1.1
Miscellaneous	4.4	4.6	4.4	4.7	5.7	5.2	4.7	4.4	4.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

history, 37.2 per cent; reading, 36.6 per cent; and spelling, 36.0 per cent. Other areas of interest include geography, claiming a total of 25.9 per cent of all the boys; religion, 20.2 per cent; and art, 18.8 per cent.

#### *Grade-Level Differences and Similarities*

In comparing the size of the percentages for item categories and their shifts from grade to grade, one finds among the subject-matter areas, science and spelling higher for sixth- than for fifth-grade boys. For the fifth-grade boys one finds English, geography, music, reading, and writing higher than for sixth-grade boys. In other areas including arithmetic, religion, history, and art, one finds approximately the same amount of interest in both grades.

#### *Interest in Non-Academics*

Interests, other than academic, connected with school life claim the attention of smaller percentages of these preadolescent boys.

These include such items as sports, friends, teachers, lunch and recess periods, and other activities. Among these, sports ranks highest claiming 4.0 per cent of the first choices of interest, 6.1 per cent of the second choices, and 5.3 per cent of the third choices. One also finds more sixth-grade boys expressing this choice of interest in both second and third choices; but more fifth-grade boys expressing this interest as their first choice.

When all three choices are combined for recess and lunch periods, one finds a total of 8.1 per cent expressing an interest in the former, and 3.2 per cent expressing an interest in the latter. The other non-academic areas claim the interest of fewer boys.

Interest of pupils in non-academic aspects of school life offers consideration for the teacher. There must be some reason why a number of boys would be more interested in these items rather than in the subject-matter learning materials which constitute the school curriculum.

#### *Analyses of Girls' School Interests*

Girls' interests relative to school life are analyzed in Table 2 according to degree of choice in the expressed interest. A glance at the first three columns of this table indicates the highest percentage of interest among first choices to be arithmetic, with 19.4 per cent of the sixth-grade girls and 17.4 per cent of the fifth-grade girls expressing this as their first choice of interest. The second choice of interest for the sixth-grade girls is spelling, with 17.3 per cent; for the fifth-grade girls it is reading, with 16.7 per cent expressing this interest. Third highest ranking interest for both fifth- and sixth-grade girls is religion, with 11.5 per cent for the sixth-grade girls and 10.1 per cent for the fifth-grade girls.

Among second choices of interest, as revealed by Columns 4, 5, and 6 of the same table, one finds reading, with 18.2 per cent, ranking first for sixth-grade girls and arithmetic, with 13.3 per cent, ranking first for the fifth-grade girls. The second highest ranking interest for both grades is spelling, with 16.7 per cent for the sixth-grade girls and 12.6 per cent for the fifth-grade girls.

Among third choices of interest expressed by these preadolescents, one finds history ranking first for the sixth-grade girls with 13.0 per cent, and spelling for the fifth-grade girls with 11.9 per cent. Ranking second highest among third choices of interest are spelling with

TABLE 2  
FIRST, SECOND AND THIRD CHOICES OF SCHOOL INTERESTS  
OF 321 PREADOLESCENT GIRLS

ITEM CATEGORIES	FIRST CHOICE			SECOND CHOICE			THIRD CHOICE		
	GRADE 6	GRADE 5	TOTAL	GRADE 6	GRADE 5	TOTAL	GRADE 6	GRADE 5	TOTAL
Arithmetic	19.4	17.4	18.4	7.3	13.3	10.3	7.5	8.7	8.1
Art	9.9	9.4	9.6	7.3	3.7	5.5	5.3	4.0	4.7
History	8.1	7.7	7.9	11.2	7.5	9.3	13.0	6.7	9.9
English	0.5	1.5	1.0	2.1	6.7	4.4	5.9	4.7	5.3
Geography	4.5	3.9	4.2	2.4	7.4	4.9	4.0	9.9	7.0
Health	0.5	0.7	0.6	1.0	3.7	2.4	1.6	1.6	1.6
Music	0.5	3.6	2.0	1.6	3.0	2.3	3.7	3.2	3.5
Reading	11.0	16.7	13.8	18.2	7.4	12.8	10.1	10.3	10.2
Religion	11.5	10.1	10.8	8.3	5.2	6.8	10.1	8.7	9.4
Science	3.1	2.9	3.0	5.2	2.2	3.7	3.7	4.0	3.9
Spelling	17.3	9.4	13.4	16.7	12.6	14.7	11.2	11.9	11.5
Writing	0.5	0.7	0.6	2.6	3.7	3.1	5.3	1.6	3.4
Sports	4.7	1.5	3.0	4.7	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.6	5.2
Friends	1.1	0.7	0.9	1.6	0.7	1.1	0.5	0.8	0.6
Teachers	1.1	2.2	1.7	0.5	1.5	1.0	1.1	4.0	2.5
Recess Period	1.6	2.9	2.3	1.5	2.2	1.8	3.2	2.4	2.8
Activities	1.6	2.2	1.9	1.6	6.7	4.1	0.5	3.2	1.8
Miscellaneous	3.1	6.5	4.9	6.2	8.1	7.3	8.5	8.7	8.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

11.2 per cent for the sixth-grade girls and reading with 10.3 per cent for the fifth-grade girls.

Combining the percentages in Columns 3, 6, and 9 to ascertain the total number of different girls expressing an interest in a particular item, one finds spelling ranking highest with a total number of 39.6 per cent of all the girls expressing an interest in this item. Ranking second and third respectively are reading, with 36.8 per cent; and arithmetic, with 36.8 per cent of the girls. Ranking fourth and fifth respectively are history, with 27.1 per cent; and religion, with 27.0 per cent of the girls in the study.

#### *Grade-Level Differences and Similarities*

Observation of differences and similarities among fifth- and sixth-grade girls in the study are apparent in various subject-matter fields. More sixth-grade girls than fifth-grade girls are interested in history, spelling, writing, science, and reading; while, on the other hand, more fifth-grade girls than sixth-grade girls are interested in English,

geography, and music. Interest in the two grades is similar for four other areas including arithmetic, religion, art, and health.

#### *Interest in Non-Academics*

At both grade levels and among all three choices, one finds listed in Table 2 percentages for items other than academic. Though these percentages are for the most part smaller than those listed for subject-matter items, they do indicate that some of the girls in the study are more interested in these items than in their school subjects.

Among the non-academic items, sports ranks first, claiming 4.7 per cent of the sixth-grade girls' and 1.5 per cent of the fifth-grade girls' first choice of interest; 4.7 per cent of the sixth-grade girls' and 4.4 per cent of the fifth-grade girls' second choice of interest; and 4.8 per cent of the sixth-grade girls' and 5.6 per cent of the fifth-grade girls' third choice of interest. Here, one readily perceives for each grade level and for each choice of interest a gradual progression increasing from first to second, and from second to third choices of interest.

#### *Sex Differences and Similarities in Composite Interest Areas*

##### *Academic Areas*

In order to present a composite picture of the various areas in which these preadolescents expressed an interest, the specific item categories were grouped according to their general areas and presented in Table 3 separately for boys and for girls. Analysis of sex differences, as indicated by this table, revealed that among first choices of interest, two areas, namely, science and mathematics, and social studies show differences favoring the boys. Three other areas, namely, religion, music and art, and language arts indicated differences in favor of the girls.

Among second choices of interest, one again finds social studies, and math and science areas exhibiting higher percentages for boys than for girls; while language arts, and music and art areas indicate a difference in favor of the girls.

Analysis of third choices of interest shows that boys exceed girls in the social studies, and language arts areas while the girls exceed the boys in the areas of religion, math and science, and music and



TABLE 3  
COMPOSITE INTEREST AREAS OF 622 PREADOLESCENT  
BOYS AND GIRLS

AREA CATEGORIES	FIRST CHOICE			SECOND CHOICE			THIRD CHOICE		
	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL	GRADE	GRADE	TOTAL
	6	5		6	5		6	5	
Boys: N = 301									
Math & Science	27.6	27.9	27.6	15.1	17.9	16.5	15.1	7.0	11.0
Social Studies	15.2	19.4	17.8	22.4	22.0	22.2	20.9	26.3	23.6
Language Arts	28.8	24.0	26.4	30.3	29.2	29.8	30.3	35.0	32.6
Music and Art	10.9	7.8	9.2	6.2	5.7	5.9	7.0	7.0	7.0
Religion	5.4	5.4	5.4	7.3	5.7	6.5	8.7	7.9	8.3
Teachers and									
Friends	2.2	1.6	1.9	1.0	2.4	1.7	1.7	2.7	2.2
Intermissions	2.2	3.1	2.5	5.7	3.2	4.5	2.3	6.2	4.3
Sports and									
Activities	3.3	6.2	4.7	7.3	8.2	7.7	9.3	3.5	6.4
Miscellaneous	4.4	4.6	4.5	4.7	5.7	5.2	4.7	4.4	4.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Girls: N = 321									
Math & Science	22.5	20.3	21.4	12.5	15.5	14.0	11.2	12.7	12.0
Social Studies	13.1	12.3	12.7	14.6	18.6	16.6	18.6	18.2	18.4
Language Arts	29.3	28.3	28.8	39.6	30.4	35.0	32.5	28.5	30.5
Music and Art	10.4	13.0	11.7	8.9	6.7	7.8	9.0	7.2	8.1
Religion	11.5	10.1	10.8	8.3	5.2	6.8	10.1	8.7	9.4
Teachers and									
Friends	2.2	2.9	2.5	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.6	4.8	3.2
Intermissions	1.6	2.9	2.3	1.5	2.2	1.8	3.2	2.4	2.8
Sports and									
Activities	6.3	3.7	5.0	6.3	11.1	8.7	5.3	8.8	7.0
Miscellaneous	3.1	6.5	4.8	6.2	8.1	7.1	8.5	8.7	8.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

art. Thus, while all are interested in math and science, more boys list this area as their first or second choice; while more girls list it as their third choice.

Similarity in degree of interest appears in but one subject-matter area, namely, religion. In this area one finds among the various degrees of choices, either no difference or a very slight difference in percentages.

#### *Non-Academic Areas*

In the non-academic areas one finds among first choices of inter-

est, as given in Column 3 of this table, sex similarities for two areas, namely, sports and activities, and intermissions.

Sex differences appear in both second and third choices of interest. Among second choices of interest, one finds more boys than girls expressing an interest in intermissions, including both the noon hour and the recess period; while slightly more girls are interested in sports and activities, and in teachers and friends.

Among third choices of interest, one finds again a higher percentage of boys interested in the intermissions while a higher percentage of the girls expressed a third interest in the areas of teachers and friends, and sports and activities.

Items listed by the individual pupils grouped under the heading of activities include various types of school activities such as plays, programs for special occasions, sodality work, and so forth.

A number of items containing smaller percentages were grouped under the heading of miscellaneous. These included such as tests, public address, fire drill, last bell, homework, holidays, hobbies, library, plant, etc.

#### *Combined Choices of Interest*

When totals for all three choices are combined, as indicated by the percentages listed in Columns 3, 6, and 9, one can readily determine the number of different boys and girls in this study expressing an interest in a particular area. Thus, Table 3 reveals that the largest percentage of the total number of different boys and girls expressing an interest in either first, second, or third choice falls in the language arts area, with 94.3 per cent of the girls and 88.8 per cent of the boys expressing an interest in this area. Social studies ranks second with 63.6 per cent of the boys and 47.7 per cent of the girls expressing an interest in this area. Third-ranking interest for both groups and for all three choices combined is the math and science area with 55.1 per cent for the boys and 47.4 per cent for the girls, respectively. These three areas exhibit percentages for both sexes and for all three choices considerably in excess of any of the other areas. Among the remaining two subject-matter areas, music and art, and religion, one finds a total of 22.1 per cent of the boys and 27.6 per cent of the girls expressing an interest in the former, while 20.2 per cent of the boys and 27.0 per cent of the girls are interested in the latter.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A total of 622 preadolescents from ten different geographical regions in the United States participated in a study of the free expression of their school interests. Analyses were made by grade level and by sex. The study reveals that boys were most interested in arithmetic, reading, spelling, and history; while the girls' highest interests were arithmetic, reading, spelling, religion, and art. Sex differences revealed that more boys are interested in mathematics, science, and social studies and more girls are interested in religion, music and art, and language arts. Small percentages in all groups of the four-fold classification were interested in the non-academic aspects of school life.

It is the opinion of the writer that there is a present need for a knowledge of children's school interests and that these be used in curriculum planning as well as in lesson planning by the teachers. Just why is it that some children are interested in some subjects more than in others, while for other children the opposite holds true? Is there not a need for the teacher's lesson plan to include items of motivation? Unless the child sees a real need, it is not likely that he is to exhibit a true and permanent interest in any area. It is hoped that the present study may arouse the interest of other investigators to carry on more extensive research in the broad field of children's interests, in their relation to motivation, to curriculum, and especially to the objectives of elementary education.

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*The Latin American Bishop's Council is planning to establish diocesan secretariats for education throughout Latin America. A recent report from the Council indicates that though 98 per cent of the people in Latin America are baptized and more than a third make their first Communion, only 3.5 per cent of the men and 9.5 per cent of the women are practicing Catholics.*

## LET'S EDUCATE THE ABLE

By Bernard Norling\*

ON EVERY SIDE one hears that our schools are overcrowded; that colleges and universities will within a very few years be inundated by a flood of students; that they must at once undertake a phenomenal expansion in both faculty and operating plant. At the same time no day passes without some prominent public figure proclaiming that the United States sorely needs more teachers, more engineers, more chemists, and more liberally educated social scientists in order to cope with the problems of an increasingly mechanized civilization and to "keep ahead of the Russians." The colleges and universities themselves, meanwhile, often enough find that they are already understaffed and underequipped and, in the case of private institutions at least, unclear as to the whereabouts of the money essential for any expansion.

Proposals for dealing with these problems are offered by the score. All omit the most obvious solution: cut back enrollments, weed out the poor and marginal students, and provide a higher and more demanding college education for the intellectually able.

### PROBLEM OF PROVIDING FOR REAL STUDENTS

Anyone connected with American institutions of higher learning is aware that they contain tens of thousands of persons with no genuine intellectual ambition and no capacity to do worth-while college work. These young people go to college because their families "send them," because they think (often correctly) that a college degree is a passport to a good job, and because of the social prestige which our society wrongly attaches to the mere possession of a "college education." The presence of great numbers of these well-intentioned but intellectually mediocre youngsters dilutes the whole educational process. They make classes needlessly crowded and take up the time of teachers with their "problems." Because they really lack the ability to do solid college work their "problems" are endless and mostly insoluble. Every hour spent, out of charity,

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counseling the mediocre is time that might be spent with those of genuine ability who could profit from extra encouragement and aid. Moreover, any experienced teacher knows that the very presence at a university of great numbers of unintellectual persons inevitably makes real learning unfashionable and reduces the initiative of many of the abler students.

Students who are mediocre or worse comprise perhaps the lowest 30 to 50 per cent of the present United States college population, though the proportion varies widely with the institution. They should be released as rapidly as possible to pursue careers in keeping with their abilities. This would not "deny" them anything to which they have a "right." It would merely keep out of a field persons who lack the aptitude and interest to do well in it. Entrance standards should then be raised to make the reform permanent. A good start could be made if colleges and universities would simply show greater respect for their own oft-declared principles on this point.

At the same time it is generally recognized that many high-school students of outstanding mental endowments do not presently attend college. Every effort should be made to get all of these youngsters into colleges so that they and the nation may make the best use of their abilities. A number of methods to achieve this have been suggested: more systematic testing in high schools to uncover latent talent, the granting of more scholarships to the financially needy, and government aid of various sorts. Any or all of these devices should be employed to reduce the present wastage of first-rate scholastic talent.

#### NO DANGER IN INTELLECTUAL ELITE

It will perhaps be protested that these proposals are unfair, discriminatory, and un-American; that they would produce an intellectual elite incompatible with a democratic society. This is partly untrue; partly irrelevant. It is a perversion of democracy to hold that equality must mean equality of education for all, regardless of ability. It is not thought necessary to teach everyone plumbing or carpentry or oil painting, regardless of interest in the subject or capacity to profit from such instruction. No baseball manager feels compelled to let each player pitch one inning because all players are legally equal in a democratic society. Why then is

it "socially" necessary to make higher education available to the able and the mediocre alike? When did it become a part of the American dream that the unfit shall forever be allowed to act as a drag on the competent?

To protest against the formation of an intellectual elite is pointless for such an elite exists in every society and has always done so. The reason is quite uncomplicated: some people are born with greater talent than others. Ancient societies all had an intellectual elite thousands of years before college degrees were invented. In all ages it has been the exceptional individuals who have been the dreamers and doers, the inventors, and the innovators. The innumerable inventions and discoveries which have made life in large portions of the modern world increasingly healthful and enjoyable have been the achievement of outstanding individuals. Hence, in the long run, it is really in the best interest of everyone to encourage and aid the exceptional as much as possible.

What is equally true, though the thought is quite alien to prevailing American attitudes, is that it is socially dangerous to educate great numbers of people beyond their true capacities. To annually turn out hundreds of thousands of formally educated university graduates must in time produce a sizable social group unable to find positions commensurate with their opinions of their own worth and abilities. People of this sort are often personally unhappy. They sometimes develop a grievance against a society in which their "talents" and "training" are not utilized. If so, they furnish a potential following for malcontents and demagogues. This has, happily, never yet been a problem in the United States but it was just such dissatisfied, misfit, unemployed, but well-educated, persons who formed much of the strength of the Nazi movement in Germany.

#### CONCERN FOR GENUINE EDUCATION

The first problem, then, is to educate the people with real ability and to try to get all of them. The second is to make education genuine, to make it real intellectual training, to make it a challenging process from which a student emerges after four years of hard work with a sound grasp of the mathematical, natural and social sciences and of a foreign language. This means the end of formal teaching of such things as citizenship, social living, music appreci-

ation, preparation for marriage, and basket weaving, to list but a few of the "fresh air" (or "hot air") subjects which currently boast course numbers and credit hours in various parts of the country. What must be overcome is the assumption, implicit at every level in the American school system, that nobody can learn anything important outside it. Much of what now constitutes the curriculum of our schools at every level is only what any moderately intelligent and moderately interested person should learn for himself merely by being alive. Much consists of nothing more than what young people should learn from their parents.

But what about the oft-repeated insistence that we need an absolute increase in the number of engineers, doctors, physicists, and so on? Part of the need can be met by recruiting the able high-school students who do not now go to college. Part of it can be met by training a higher proportion of able students now in college to fill these professions. The truth is that tens of thousands who now secure college degrees do not study anything remotely connected with a professional career nor do they wish to do so. They want not education but degrees, for degrees lead to better jobs of all sorts after graduation. Everyone knows dozens of formally "educated" persons who never read a book after graduation and whose tastes, habits, and attitudes are indistinguishable from those of persons of little or no education.

The responsibility for this absurd situation rests squarely on our whole society for making an idol of formal, but not real, education. There are innumerable positions in the civil service and business, for instance, which do not actually require extensive college training for capable performance of the duties involved but which one is not apt to get in the first place without that precious diploma. To many salesmen, office employees, minor executives, and civil servants of various sorts, college training may be of some personal value, and its false prestige is certainly coveted by their employers, but far more important ingredients in the performance of their duties are diligence, honesty, sound judgment, a pleasing personality, and similar personal qualities once they have gotten the job in the first place. The last is the heart of the matter. Thousands of the sluggards, the laggards, and the uninterested who clutter our colleges are there not because of any desire to learn but because they know full well that many careers will be automatically closed

to them if they lack that priceless sheepskin. Understandably, they make little real attempt to learn anything for its own sake but strive merely to "get by."

Thus, at bottom, the educational problem is a social problem. We must reverse the prevalent American attitude which makes a "college education" a sacred cow but which holds real learning and intellectuality in a certain contempt. How ironic it is that the very people who are so anxious to have their children go to college "to get all the advantages" are frequently the same ones who regard college professors as an eccentric tribe of the faintly ridiculous and the possibly treasonous. These same persons would be moderately mortified to be thought "intellectuals" by their own associates.

#### CONCLUSION

The foregoing argument does not mean at all that everyone except the most brilliant people ought to be regarded with condescension or pity. The person of industry, integrity, and character is just as valuable and just as deserving of the admiration of our society as the world's most brilliant theoretical physicist. It means only that we ought to have enough common sense to recognize that God did not create all men intellectually equal. It means that we ought to put away our false pride and provide a first-class education for those who have the desire to work hard at it and the inborn capacity to absorb it.

The practical problem is the mountainous one of persuading roughly a hundred million people to reverse fixed, inherited sets of values and standards of judgment; to persuade them to respect the genuinely learned; to persuade them that a college degree for the intellectually mediocre is not a social necessity; to persuade American employers to hire persons not for the phony prestige clinging to their degrees but for basic good sense, ambition, energy, and honesty. It is time that we made more efficient use of the nation's most vital resource: its first rate intellectual talent. It is time to start trying to do what is right and sensible instead of what is merely popular.

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*The Archdiocese of Hartford has completed plans for three new Catholic central high schools which are to open in September, 1961.*



## RELIGIOUS AND MORAL DEVELOPMENT IN ADOLESCENCE

By Rev. Walter J. Smith \*

**A**DOLESCENCE IS AN IN-BETWEEN AGE. The adolescent realizes that he is no longer a child; he wants desperately to achieve adult status and to be accepted as a mature person, but does not know quite how to go about it. The confusion, doubt, and insecurity which result are often reflected in his religious and moral development. G. Stanley Hall, in the preface of his two volume study, *Adolescence*, described this stage of personality development as a "period of storm and stress"<sup>1</sup> during which "youth awakes to a new world and understands neither it nor himself."<sup>2</sup> Something similar can be read in almost every textbook of adolescence which is in current use.

### ADOLESCENT NEED OF RELIGION AND MORALITY

Do adolescents have any psychological need of religion and morality? The observations of parents, the analysis of adolescents' diaries, the results of questionnaire and attitude scale studies, and even the verbal reports of adolescents themselves all bear witness to the fact that adolescence is a time of confusion and doubt. As a consequence, adolescents tend to feel somewhat insecure, and they need some system of beliefs and some code of conduct upon which they can feel that they can rely, in order to dissipate, at least to some extent, these feelings of insecurity and confusion. Religious beliefs and practices and the stable moral standards which flow from these fill this need if the adolescent is enabled to accept them as reasonable by the understanding and helpful guidance and example of parents and teachers.

### ADOLESCENT ATTITUDES TOWARD RELIGION AND MORALITY

There is not simply one adolescent attitude toward religion and morality. On the contrary, there are wide individual differences

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<sup>1</sup> G. Stanley Hall, *Adolescence* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1921), p. xiii.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. xv.

among adolescents in their attitudes generally, just as there are in other areas of personality development. The child's attitude toward religion is one of curiosity, as it is toward life in general. He is anxious to know. He asks many questions and accepts very readily the answers given to him by adults. He is impressed with religious services; toward these he has an attitude of reverence and awe. But his religion is largely ego-centric. He is religious for his own purposes and for what he can get out of it.

The attitudes of the adolescent, on the other hand, are somewhat different. While he is still curious, he is in this stage of development more anxious to understand, to find the relationship between religious beliefs, values, and practices, and his expanding information in the areas of history and the sciences, and to have all the elements of his learning fit together into a reasonable body of knowledge. In addition, he feels the need to understand himself. With his newly awakened drive toward independence, he is no longer willing to accept without questioning the authoritative statements of his elders. Studies reveal that there is a reaction against the teaching of their elders in about two-thirds of adolescents.<sup>3</sup> In about fifty per cent of adolescents this reaction comes before the age of sixteen, and in general, it appears earlier in girls than it does in boys.

Just what the outcome of this adolescent rebellion will be, depends on many factors. If it is accepted and understood, and the adolescent is helped in a friendly and sympathetic fashion to work it through, he will be able to come to a satisfactory resolution of his doubts and remain faithful to the religion in which he was reared. But if, on the contrary, he is rejected, scolded, and condemned for daring to question the authority of his parents, teachers, priests, and the church in religious matters, he may give up religion altogether, or in his continuing confusion, shift from one religion to another trying to find a satisfactory solution.

This rebellion finds its application also in the attitudes of adolescents toward moral standards and behavior. During these years the standards and behavior of his peers assume the greatest importance. Those of his parents and other authority figures tend to be rejected whenever there is conflict between these standards and those of the

<sup>3</sup> G. W. Allport, J. M. Gillespie, and J. Young, "The Religion of the Post-War College Student," *Journal of Psychology*, XXV (1948), 3-33.

Cf. E. D. Starbuck, *The Psychology of Religion* (New York: Scribner and Sons, 1889).

peer group. These attitudes need to be recognized for what they are: not so much as outright rebellion and defiance, but more as a striving for independence and a working toward the ability to establish his own standards of conduct, which will make sense to him, and to which he can feel that he can reasonably adhere. In order to do so the adolescent needs the understanding, acceptance, and friendly help of the adults who are responsible for his guidance.

#### CHANGES IN RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

Questioning and doubt about religious beliefs begins in later childhood and continues and increases in adolescence. There are a number of factors responsible for this: 1. Increased knowledge. The adolescent is learning more and more about science and scientific concepts and hypotheses, and particularly in non-sectarian or public high-schools, he may be introduced to evolutionary theories and materialistic thinking. Knowing of no way in which his new knowledge can be reconciled with what he thinks his religion demands that he believe, he begins to doubt the validity of some or all of his religious beliefs. 2. Growth in intelligence. As his mental age increases, the adolescent becomes less and less satisfied with the reasons for beliefs which he found satisfactory as a child. He feels the need to have all his knowledge fit into some intelligible pattern. He has to know how scientific teachings and religious beliefs can fit together. To him they seem contradictory, and if they are contradictory, he realizes that one or the other side must be false. The evidence for the scientific teachings is still fresh in his mind. As a consequence, it is usually the religious beliefs that he begins to doubt. 3. Personal catastrophes. The death of a parent, of a brother or sister, or of some close friend, the contracting of a disabling illness, or family financial reverses, etc., may bring up the problem of evil in the world intimately into his own life. He may ask himself, "How can a God, supposed to be All-Good, allow such things to happen?" Failing to find a satisfactory answer, he may be led to doubt the existence of God. 4. The home. What have been the parents' religious beliefs and practices? Have they sent their children to church while they themselves stayed at home? Or, on the contrary, have the parents instructed their children in their religious beliefs from early childhood, and taken the lead in the practice of their religion? Have they consistently voiced belief or disbelief in religious teaching in the

presence of their children? Have they imposed standards of morality upon their children which they themselves made no secret of disregarding? Once the adolescent is able to rebel against such unreasonable and hypocritical authority, which imposes obligations which it will not itself assume, he will do so at the first opportunity.

In spite of the almost universal working of these factors, doubting about religious beliefs and abandonment of religious practices and moral standards in adolescence are by no means universal. Much will depend, for example, on the manner in which scientific teachings are presented to him, and likewise, on the way in which religious doctrines have been taught, and on whether or not he is continuing instructions in religion. In any case, it is necessary for the development of an adequate and mature religious life, that the adolescent go through some process of critical re-evaluation of his religious beliefs and practices and moral standards. This is necessary in order to establish this area of his life on an adult level, just as it is necessary that he evaluate critically the other areas of his world, e.g., social relationships and vocational aspirations, and formulate some satisfactory solutions on the adult level of attitude, belief and practice.

#### AREAS OF ADOLESCENT DOUBTS

Hollingsworth found, from a study of the diaries of adolescents, that the doubting begins with wondering about the different kinds of religions.<sup>4</sup> How is it that different people go to different churches? How is it that they profess different beliefs? Forty-two per cent of doubts found in those under 16 years of age were concerned with this. Of those over 16, 96 per cent were concerned with the contents of religious beliefs, such as the relationship of God to man, prayers, knowledge vs. belief, God and nature, duties toward God, etc. Kuhlen and Arnold, using the questionnaire method, found that throughout adolescence the problems about which adolescents were most concerned were failing to go to church, getting help on religious problems, wanting to know the meaning of religion, wanting communion with God, sin.<sup>5</sup> They found also, that some problems increase

<sup>4</sup>L. S. Hollingsworth, "The Adolescent Child." In C. Murchison, *A Handbook of Child Psychology* (Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press, 1933), pp. 882-908.

<sup>5</sup>R. G. Kuhlen and H. Arnold, "Age Differences in Religious Beliefs and Problems During Adolescence," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LXV (1944), 291-300.

in importance as adolescence progresses. These are: disliking church services, heaven and hell, conflicts of science and religion, wondering what becomes of people when they die.

As a result of these religious doubts the adolescent may give up going to church, saying prayers, or engaging in other religious practices. If he continues with them, they may become for him mere empty forms. He goes through the motions but they mean little or nothing to him. Or, on the contrary, just the reverse can happen. He can use these religious practices as an anchor to enable him to ride out his mental storm. They become his means of maintaining mental equilibrium during the stress of re-evaluating and thinking through his whole system of religious beliefs. Which of these courses of action he actually follows will depend mostly on how much and what kind of assistance in the solution of his problems he is able to obtain from his parents, his teachers, and his parish.

#### MORAL STANDARDS AND BEHAVIOR

Moral ideals and conduct are influenced by the same factors which cause the adolescent to doubt or disbelieve religious teachings: increased knowledge, growth in intelligence, personal catastrophes, and the home. This is so because religious beliefs and moral standards and practices go together, since a desirable moral code has its foundation usually in some religious philosophy of life. As a result, when religious beliefs are discarded, moral standards are correspondingly lowered. When moral ideals decline, behavior deteriorates. This is apparently one of the causes of juvenile delinquency. Immoral and anti-social behavior on the part of adolescents results, at least in part, from a lowering of their moral standards. The decline in adolescent moral ideals, in turn, is an effect of doubting or of actually giving up the religious beliefs and practices of childhood.

Some of the changes in moral standards and behavior in adolescence have already been indicated in the study of adolescent diaries by Hollingworth in which it was found that duties toward God are undergoing some re-evaluation during the teen years.<sup>6</sup> In addition, the study of Kuhlen and Arnold found that failing to go to church, and sin in general, are problems throughout adolescence, and that disliking church services becomes more of a problem as adolescence

<sup>6</sup>L. S. Hollingworth, *op. cit.*, pp. 882-908.

advances.<sup>7</sup> Furthermore, it is generally recognized that adolescent standards of conduct and actual behavior tend to be derived more from the adolescent group than from adults. Because of his in-between status and the feelings of insecurity which arise from it, the adolescent can consider himself neither a child nor an adult. His childhood standards, which he absorbed from the adults around him, have been discarded. Adult standards are not as yet permitted him. He therefore turns to his own age group for his norms of conduct. His strong need to be accepted and approved by his own age group makes him reject adult standards when they conflict with those accepted by his peers.

Yet, nearly every adolescent has high ideals for himself and in regard to his conduct. When he falls short of them he feels ashamed, condemns himself bitterly, and has a tendency to question his own adequacy. He is inclined to be a perfectionist, and to expect a great deal of himself. But, while he may admit his shortcomings to himself, he may cover up his feelings by aggressiveness and boasting, or by withdrawing and daydreaming.

Several studies have tried to isolate some of the changes in moral standards and behavior which take place during adolescence. Stone and Barker investigated the moral judgments of premenarcheal and postmenarcheal girls, and found that the postmenarcheal girls gave more mature responses with regard to conduct which some people would think is wrong. In general, they tended to be more liberal in their judgments of smoking, playing cards, truancy, anger, fussing, divorce, pawning jewelry, and quarreling.<sup>8</sup>

Pressey and Robinson found similar changes in both boys and girls during the high school years. They became more liberal with advancing age in regard to their moral judgments of smoking, playing cards, and divorce. But they became less tolerant of immodesty, conceit, and bribery.<sup>9</sup> In addition, some studies have been made with regard to the changing of moral standards for specific acts. Tudor-Hart found that condemnation of lying on moral grounds became less frequent as adolescents grew older. Lies told to avoid hurt feel-

<sup>7</sup> R. G. Kuhlen and H. Arnold, *op. cit.*, pp. 291-300.

<sup>8</sup> C. P. Stone and R. G. Barker, "The Attitudes and Interests of Premenarcheal and Postmenarcheal Girls," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, LIV (1939), 27-71.

(New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944).

<sup>9</sup> S. L. Pressey and F. P. Robinson, *Psychology and the New Education*

ings, i.e., social lies, were considered justified by increasingly larger proportions of adolescents as they advanced in age.<sup>10</sup> Another study of the moral judgments of high school students was made by Slavens and Brogan.<sup>11</sup> In the opinions of their subjects stealing was the worst offense, followed by cheating, lying, and drinking, in that order. No reference was made to sex in the investigation, at the request of the school authorities.

However, there have been a number of studies which inquired into the standards of sex behavior in high school students. Butterfield found these problems of great concern to adolescents: When is petting right and when wrong—44 per cent. Kissing an engaged girl—40 per cent. Engaged petting—22 per cent. Trial marriage—22 per cent.<sup>12</sup> Lynd and Lynd reported that 48 per cent of the adolescent boys and 51 per cent of the adolescent girls whom they studied marked as true that "Nine out of ten boys and girls of high-school age have 'petting parties'" and 44 per cent of the boys and 38 per cent of the girls admitted that they had taken part in a "petting party."<sup>13</sup>

#### THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KNOWLEDGE AND BEHAVIOR

Knowledge of what is morally right or wrong does not insure good conduct. Even when the adolescent is aware of accepted moral standards he may not always live up to them. The reasons for this are several. 1. Conflicts about which standards of conduct are correct, those of his parents or those of his peers. 2. Standards of conduct which are regarded as unfair or behind the times. 3. Desire to gain attention by showing off. 4. Unwillingness to make the effort to do what is known to be right. Hartshorne and May, in their famous study, found correlations of .25 between moral knowledge and behavior.<sup>14</sup> Bartlett and Harris in a study of delinquent and

<sup>10</sup>B. E. Tudor-Hart, "Are There Cases in Which Lies Are Necessary?" *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, XXXIII (1926), 586-641.

<sup>11</sup>G. S. Slavens and A. P. Brogan, "Moral Judgments of High-School Students," *International Journal of Ethics*, XXXVIII (1927), 57-69.

<sup>12</sup>O. M. Butterfield, "Love Problems of Adolescence," *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 768 (1939).

<sup>13</sup>R. S. Lynd and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown* (New York: Harcourt, Brace Co., 1929).

<sup>14</sup>H. Hartshorne and M. May, *Studies in Deceit* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1928).



non-delinquent boys, reported that both were about equally well able to judge the most morally desirable thing to do, when confronted with a choice situation.<sup>15</sup>

#### ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS IN RELIGION AND MORALITY

Finally, what are the adjustment problems of adolescents with regard to religious beliefs and practices and moral ideals and conduct, and what can be done about them?

1.—Confusion about what he should believe, because of apparent conflict between his childhood understanding of religious teachings and his newly acquired knowledge of scientific discoveries.

What can be done about these? In the first place, the adolescent should be encouraged to voice these doubts and to seek help and advice from his church in their solution, by actually talking them out with a spiritual adviser. This will probably necessitate some actual study of religious beliefs, the guidance of some one who knows these beliefs and the reasons behind them, and a reformulation of them so that they can fit in with scientific knowledge and discoveries.

The foundation of religious clubs in public high schools, e. g., Newman Clubs, makes it easier for the adolescent to bring his doubts to a religious adviser with whom he can talk. In Catholic high schools this is largely taken care of in the classroom discussions of religious beliefs and practices in relation to scientific discoveries and hypotheses, provided that the teachers of the religion classes have been adequately trained to do so, are approachable and reasonable, and do not feel threatened by students' questions. Unfortunately, this is not always true of the teachers of religion in Catholic high schools.

2.—Confusion about moral standards and ideals of conduct, and the idea that all adults and adult standards are out of date.

The conflict here is for the most part with the parents, but it usually involves other authorities as well, and particularly those at school. Usually there is something to be said for both positions. Many parents and school authorities are too strict and unbending. They refuse to recognize that the adolescent is no longer a child, and that it is necessary for his proper growth and development that

<sup>15</sup> E. R. Bartlett and D. B. Harris, "Personality Factors in Delinquency," *School and Society*, XLIII (1936), 653-656.



he be encouraged and helped to take more responsibility for the running of his own life. By over-protection both the home and the school keep the adolescent immature and prevent him from growing up, while at the same time they scold him for being childish. On the other hand, the adolescent often overestimates his ability to act responsibly, and wishes to run his own life in ways for which he is as yet not sufficiently prepared.

One way in which this problem has been successfully handled is by frank and open discussion between the parents and the adolescents, perhaps in a whole group in a neighborhood or a school grade, out of which is formulated a code of conduct to which everyone, parents and adolescents alike, can subscribe, and are willing to adopt in actual practice. The same procedure has been found satisfactory in schools in setting up a student government which actually functions as a student government and is not one in name only. In using this approach, advantage is taken of the adolescent's devotion to his peers and to their ideals and standards.

3.—Feelings of inadequacy and of guilt because he does not actually live up to the levels of conduct to which he aspires.

When feelings of inadequacy or of guilt are very severe, they may result in a serious behavior disorder or even a mental illness, and thus they may require professional assistance. But when they result in a milder sort of depression and discouragement, they may be handled adequately by any understanding adult who can be reassuring and supporting. It is important, however, for such a person to recognize when the adolescent's behavior has taken on the nature of a disorder which is more serious than he is competent to manage.

Parents and school authorities should recognize that adolescents are really trying to be grown up, but because of their inexperience are able to make only fumbling attempts at it. They need to feel that they are being understood and that they are accepted as possessing the dignity belonging to every human person. They need help and encouragement in their striving for independence, for this is the only way in which they will be able to achieve maturity of personality.

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*The total population in the Archdiocese of Quebec numbers 634,408, and all except 5,673 persons are Catholic.*

## MINOR SEMINARY SPEECH PROGRAM: PART IV — THE FOURTH YEAR

By Rev. Joseph M. Connors, S.V.D.\*

A REVIEW OF THE SPEECH COURSE for the first three years of the minor seminary, as it has been presented, will show that the objectives have so far been centered mostly on speech delivery rather than on speech composition. If the teacher has been doing his best to assign topics which draw out each student's special interests, the class has not been at a loss for what to talk about or where to find material in the first and third years. There has been no problem in the second year either, since throughout the course in oral interpretation the students made use of literary selections composed by others. The fourth year of the minor seminary, however, will concentrate on speech composition.

### COURSE TITLE AND OBJECTIVE

The speech course for the fourth year may be called "Oral Composition." Its very specific purpose is to give the students a strong sense of speech arrangement. Since the number of speech periods in the fourth year curriculum is so severely limited, it is quite important to limit the objective just as severely. Interest and effort will be focused on the arrangement, order, or outline of the speech rather than on any matters of grammar or syntax or literary style. These matters are presumably the province of the course in English composition. It is true that outlining is also an activity of the course in English composition, but the psychological differences that exist between hearing a speech and reading an essay create a need for a certain psychological progression in the arrangement of a speech, which is not, perhaps, as great in a written work. Over and above the principles of outlining which are the presumed content of the course in English composition, therefore, the students must learn the difference between static and dynamic outline, or, in other terms, the difference between merely logical structure and psychological pro-

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\*Rev. Joseph M. Connors, S.V.D., M.A., is professor of homiletics at St. Mary's Mission Seminary, Techy, Illinois. This is the last article in the series on the minor seminary speech program; the other three articles appeared in our September, October and November issues.

gression. They can learn this through a series of assignments in which they will be required to develop a theme in a definite sequence. They will be provided with a number of basic speech arrangements or sequences, which will be the patterns for their talks. The objective is not exactly to have them memorize these patterns for use in their later work of speaking and preaching but to familiarize them with the principles upon which these patterns are based. The ideal result of the fourth year course would be to have the students acquire such an instinct for rhetorical order and such a compulsion toward good psychological arrangement that, almost without adverting to it, their future speeches and sermons would be arranged according to the principles of the best rhetorical theory. At the risk of laboring the point, let it be said again that the teacher in the fourth year speech course is not concerned primarily with grammatical rules or with the choice of words and stylistically effective expressions, but is concerned almost exclusively with the overall structure and movement of the large units of the talk, and with smaller units of speech only inasmuch as they strengthen this structure or help this movement along.

#### THE ASSIGNMENTS

The assignments of the fourth year consist of eight sequences or patterns of speech arrangement, forming the basis for eight or more rounds of talks. An effort has been made to give to these sequences names that will describe them and help the student to recall the steps involved. In making the assignments, the teacher need only explain the steps of each sequence carefully and perhaps give a little talk of his own to illustrate them. If the sameness of the assignments seems to pall on the students at times, the teacher should be able to overcome this by dramatizing the variety of uses for the various plans and by giving full accounts of the very colorful historical background of some of them. Interest can also be kept at a reasonably high level by discrimination in the choice of topics. In the fourth year the teacher may expect the students to have interests of a more mature level and wider scope than before, and he therefore should require that they choose speech topics that are not only interesting and entertaining, as in earlier years, but also worthy of the attention and consideration of more advanced students. He may enlist the aid of the teachers of other fourth year courses in the selection of

topics and the provision of adequate material. To insure careful preparation, he may also demand that the students submit full outlines of the talks several days before delivery with the first and last paragraphs written out verbatim.

#### THE SAY-A-FEW-WORDS PLAN<sup>1</sup>

This easy four-step sequence is a good introductory assignment. The letters S-A-F-W in the title are a mnemonic aid for remembering the four steps:

1. State your point.
2. Accentuate your point.
3. "For instance" your point.
4. Wind up with your point.

By using this sequence, it should be quite simple for the teacher to extemporize a two- or three-minute talk on any point the students suggest. Such a sample talk from the teacher, put together before their eyes in the classroom, will give the students confidence that they can do the same.

#### THE HO-HUM SEQUENCE<sup>2</sup>

The sequence for the second assignment is quite similar to the first plan above, since it consists of four steps, the second and third of which are identical in both plans. The four steps of the sequence are:

1. Ho-hum!
2. Why bring that up?
3. For instance?
4. So what?

<sup>1</sup>David Guy Powers, *How to Say a Few Words* (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1953). In 155 pages this book builds on the S-A-F-W formula. In the first thirty-two pages the author gives samples of two-, four-, six-, and eight-minute speeches based on it.

<sup>2</sup>Richard C. Borden, *Public Speaking—As Listeners Like It!* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935), pp. 3-18. The sequence given here is Borden's. Modern Talking Picture Service, with branch offices in larger cities, rents a 30-minute sound movie called *How to Make a Sales Presentation*. The movie is about twenty years old and somewhat dated in costume, but it has the specific merit of having been made to illustrate the Borden formula, or, as we have called it, the "Ho-Hum Sequence."

The teacher may point out that the "ho-hum" step which introduces this sequence is an attention step, which, at the opening of a speech, is of vital importance. The "so what" step which ends the speech has the added value of relating all that has been said to the future thought or action of the listeners. Although in many speeches the use of the Say-A-Few-Words Plan and the Ho-hum Sequence will result in the same development, the second of these two arrangements is perhaps more subtly oriented to the listeners' than to the speaker's point of view. This adoption of the listeners' viewpoint is one of the primary principles of persuasion.

#### THE FIVE-STEP MOTIVATED SEQUENCE<sup>3</sup>

While one talk per student on the previous sequences was enough to become acquainted with them, the teacher may devote more class time and more concentrated attention to the present sequence, which is more highly developed and affords greater opportunity for highly profitable discussion of some basic principles of psychological arrangement. The five steps of this sequence are the following:

1. Attention Step.
2. Need Step.
3. Satisfaction Step.
4. Visualization Step.
5. Action Step.

A basic principle of speech arrangement which this sequence suggests is the need of capturing attention at the outset. It also suggests the principle that a speaker must make his audience feel the need of what he has to offer; interest is often synonymous with awareness of a need. The other principles of arrangement suggested by this sequence will occur to the teacher in his own study of it. He does not have time in the minor seminary, however, to give lectures on the principles of persuasion. He does both the minimum and the maximum if he gives the students a deep insight into the rhetorical

<sup>3</sup>Alan H. Monroe, *Principles and Types of Speech* (4th ed.; New York: Scott-Foresman and Co., 1955), chap. xvi, "Organizing the Complete Speech: the Motivated Sequence," pp. 307-331, especially p. 315 and p. 320. As can be seen from the chart on pp. 668f, there are variations of this sequence involving omission of some steps in certain circumstances, but the teacher is perhaps wiser not to point this out to the students in the fourth year of the minor seminary, where this sequence is only one assignment. For clarity's sake it is better to describe the five steps and require rigid adherence to them.

design of this and the following sequences. He expects them to remember enough to explain the rhetorical value of each step in itself and in its relation to the other steps.

#### THE LITTLE METHOD<sup>4</sup>

Although it might be a more descriptive name if this were called the "motives-nature-means sequence," there is also an advantage in keeping the historical name given to it by Saint Vincent de Paul. This plan, which Saint Vincent taught to the clergy of France in the seventeenth century as a design for a sermon on a vice or a virtue, a commandment or a duty, consists of three simple steps:

1. Motives.
2. Nature.
3. Means.

Although this is a plan for a moral sermon, there is no reason why students in the fourth year of the minor seminary cannot use it as a sequence for a talk in a speech course. If the teacher is averse to letting them compose sermons so early, as well he may be, there is nothing against their giving little talks on punctuality, neatness, careful planning of study time, physical fitness through sports, and other such "natural virtues" or their opposing vices. If the teacher introduces this assignment with a circumstantial account of the homiletic reform which Saint Vincent effected in the seventeenth century through the Little Method, the students will have the thrill of following in the footsteps of a very great saint and a great preacher. All the more so, if the teacher will take one of the conferences of Saint Vincent de Paul as a model for this sequence!

#### THE PROBLEM-SOLVING SEQUENCE<sup>5</sup>

This sequence is based on descriptions of the natural steps or phases through which the human mind passes in the process of

<sup>4</sup>Cf. Patrick Boyle, C.M., *Instructions on Preaching* (Dublin, 1902), pp. 77-86. Or see Thomas A. Carney, *A Primer of Homiletics* (Houston, 1943), pp. 41-47. For samples of Saint Vincent's conferences, see Joseph Leonard, C.M., ed. and trans., *Conferences of St. Vincent de Paul to the Sisters of Charity* (4 vols.; Westminster, Md.: Newman Press, 1952).

<sup>5</sup>Cf. William N. Brigance, *Speech Composition* (2d ed.; New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953), p. 95.

solving a problem. There are several formulations of it, among which the following is as good as any:

1. General awareness of a problem.
2. Definite location of the problem.
3. Survey of possible solutions.
4. Selection and defense of the best solution.
5. Proposal of action in accordance with this solution.

This problem-solving sequence is especially adapted to talks which draw their material from other courses in the fourth year, such as the religion course or the course in problems of democracy, if such a course is given.

#### THE HOSTILE-AUDIENCE PLAN

The best way to describe this sequence is to say that it is the plan upon which the articles in the *Summa Theologica* of Saint Thomas Aquinas are built. For that reason it might well be called the "Summa Plan" or the "Aquinas Plan." The name we have given it above, however, is more descriptive, and it puts more emphasis on the need for audience-analysis, which is the first principle of persuasion. Recalling the "*utrum. . .*," the "*videtur quod non. . .*," the "*respondeo dicendum. . .*," and the "*ad primum. . .*" of the articles in the *Summa Theologica*, the reader will easily recognize the origin of four of the following five steps:

1. Statement of the proposition or proposed line of action.
2. Vigorous statement of the main objections and obstacles.
3. Proof of the proposition, defense of the proposed action.
4. Solution of the previous objections, removal of obstacles.
5. Final exhortation for acceptance of the speaker's point.

When explaining this sequence, the teacher may make the most of the opportunities which it offers for the discussion of audience-analysis. He can introduce such concepts as the "burden of proof" and the psychological mistake of revealing one's diffidence about a point by too great zeal in proving it.<sup>6</sup> These ideas may all be aired in passing, so that, while he does not expect the students to remember

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<sup>6</sup> See Richard Whately's classic analysis of the burden of proof in Lester B. Thonssen, *Selected Readings in Rhetoric and Public Speaking* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942), pp. 290-292.

them explicitly for any test or examination, the teacher gives them insights which will enable them to profit by their informal experiences in everyday situations of persuasion. At least for the more gifted students in the class, an insight gained and developed in this casual way may often be of as great value as anything they have learned formally in the course. Pedagogically also, such discussions have the value of giving to assignments such as the present one the fascination that principles of debate and persuasion usually have for students who are just beginning to test their own adolescent powers of argumentation.

Besides the general principles of persuasion which this assignment gives him occasion to discuss, the teacher should give a careful rhetorical analysis of this sequence itself. It may be explained to the students that, as a speech plan, this sequence is adapted to an audience which is definitely opposed to the speaker's viewpoint and which either has very definite reasons for being so opposed or will soon formulate these objections when the speaker announces the proposition of his talk. Essentially this sequence is a "give-away" technique, in which the speaker seems at first to be conceding to his listeners the full force of all the objections they would like to make against his proposition. He states their objections even more forcibly, perhaps, than they themselves would be capable of stating them. He then gives a reasoned presentation of his own point of view, and finally, in the light of this reasoning, he solves each of the objections with which his speech began. It is like deep-sea fishing, when the big fish is allowed to pull the line out to its limit but is then reeled in relentlessly when the fight is gone out of him. The sequence is psychologically superb, since nothing captures the attention of an audience sooner than the candid statement of a truth or the proposal of an action which the speaker must know is unwelcome to his listeners. Moreover, nothing generates greater interest on the part of an audience than to see the speaker stating their own objections so vigorously that he seems to be arguing himself into a corner. There can hardly be better preparation for producing firm conviction in their minds than to show them at the outset that their viewpoint is thoroughly understood and has been carefully and sympathetically considered but is found inferior to the more reasoned position which the speaker feels forced by the evidence to adopt.

The present sequence also calls for some cautions. First of all, it is



seldom wise to raise objections which an audience has not yet thought of or is not likely to think of lest one create difficulties which do not exist. Furthermore, it is of the greatest importance to state objections with the utmost candor and to be scrupulous not to misrepresent or distort any position taken by an opponent. Again, the reasoning process in the third step (or *corpus articuli*) must not be too intricate for the audience to follow and must sparkle with epigrams and apt comparisons that will stick in their minds after the speech is over. Finally, it would be fatal for the speaker to give his listeners the impression that he is lining up their objections only in order to refute them out of hand. His attitude should rather be the "come let us reason together" approach, in which he shows sincere appreciation of the opposing views but is confident that his fair-minded listeners will want to reconsider their position in the light of a clearer explanation of the facts or the exposition of new evidence.

As illustrations of the present sequence, the teacher has all the articles in the *Summa Theologica*.<sup>7</sup> A lively paraphrase of such an article not only makes the assignment clear to the class but convinces the students as nothing else will that this particular assignment is really big-league, a conviction which the teacher is wise to encourage.

#### THE IMPLICATIVE SEQUENCE<sup>8</sup>

After the strictly logical progression of the previous sequence, the present assignment is a change of pace. Basically it is an inductive sequence, inasmuch as a number of otherwise isolated facts or examples are brought together in a synthesis which allows only one conclusion to be drawn. The logic of the case, as we might call it, is implied rather than spelled out. It amounts to listing the clues and circumstances, vividly describing scenes or statistics, and then "letting the facts speak for themselves." For this reason there are no "steps" as in the previous assignments.

A good illustration of the implicative sequence is Mark Antony's speech over the body of Caesar. In this really remarkable Shakespearean oration, which is such a fertile source of illustration for so

<sup>7</sup>It might even be a good idea to ask the students to give talks based on some articles of the *Summa* carefully selected for them by the teacher. The excellent English translation of the *Summa* recently published by Benziger makes this quite possible.

<sup>8</sup>Brigance, *op. cit.*, pp. 102-109.

many rhetorical principles, the Roman demagogue merely sketches one vivid picture after another of Caesar's unselfishness and does not show his hand clearly until the mob itself had drawn the implied conclusion. The teacher can easily make up other illustrations of the assignment. Stringing together a half-dozen success-through-hard-work stories, for example, implies strongly the moral conclusion that, other things being equal, hard work brings success. Again, a half-dozen short accounts of spectacular automobile accidents, each account ending with a statement of what the speed was at the time of the accident, make an implicative-sequence talk with the conclusion that "speed kills."

The rhetorical merit of this sequence lies in the fact that audiences often prefer to draw their own conclusions when they are evident enough. There is a graceful compliment in letting them figure out for themselves what the speaker is driving at; by his whole manner he implies that in the presence of such listeners he does not have to spell it out. The implicative method also shows that the speaker has great confidence in his point, since he seems to feel that all he has to do is give the facts and circumstances and no honest man will fail to see what they indicate.

#### THE EXTENDED-ANALOGY SEQUENCE<sup>9</sup>

The three steps in this sequence are an analogy, a pivotal point, and the analogue. It may be explained to the students as parallel to the development of a well-constructed play: there is a rising, or ascending, movement, a turning point, and a denouement. In the first phase, or ascending movement, a good playwright will give clues and touch deftly upon circumstances and give subtle emphasis to phrases in the dialogue which an attentive audience may suspect to be significant but whose significance is not entirely clear until the unraveling of the plot in the third phase of the drama, in which the audience is able to understand in one brilliant revelation all the complex details developed earlier. As a sequence for a speech, this three-phase development has a rhetorical value which is more dramatic

<sup>9</sup> Perhaps there is a little inconsistency in calling the whole sequence an extended analogy and then calling its parts the analogy, pivot, and analogue. In explaining a sequence in this fourth-year course, however, concise terminology is quite important, and these terms seem to serve well enough by their brevity without doing great violence to their dictionary definitions. See "analogy" in Webster's unabridged dictionary.

than it is instructive or persuasive. It is the kind of development that will often be employed to put an aura of beauty and charm around a truth which is in danger of being neglected because lip-service to it is so common. In the development of the analogy the rhetorical effect corresponds to the attention and interest steps of other sequences; the audience half suspects but is not really sure what the speaker is driving at. On occasions when this sequence is characteristically employed, such as graduations, dedications, or other ceremonial programs, the very circumstances in which speaker and audience find themselves make clear what the general area of the speech topic must be. When the speech, then, opens with an analogy that seems far removed from this area, the audience is intrigued with how the speaker is going to establish the relationship to the occasion.

To illustrate, let us imagine a fourth year student giving a valedictory address on graduation day at a minor seminary which trains future foreign missionaries. He may open by a description of the training given to the crack military forces of the nation. In his description he is carefully selective, choosing to elaborate on those circumstances of military training to which he knows he can later draw a parallel and for the same reason suppressing those circumstances which would make the comparison limp. After this description of military training, he comes to the pivotal point of the sequence, which may be such a single sentence as: "On this graduation day we are celebrating the completion of a phase in the basic training of future missionary troops who will someday establish beachheads for Christ in pagan lands." The remainder of the speech is denouement, in which the speaker's only task is to show good taste in pointing out the parallels between military training and the past four years of the minor seminary.

It is evident that such a talk is not designed to instruct, in the sense of telling anyone things about minor seminary training which he did not know before. Neither is it designed essentially to persuade, in the sense of calling for resolution or action. It is designed to clothe a theme with nobility and splendor, which is a very legitimate rhetorical aim on a ceremonial occasion. Its rhetorical appeal to the audience lies largely in its neatness and smooth unity. If they feel that the analogy is apt and plausible, they have a certain quiet satisfaction in seeing the topic in this new light.

To further illustrate the movement of this sequence, the teacher

may point out that it is the essential movement of many poems, such as Coventry Patmore's *The Toys* or Tennyson's *Bugle Song*. Identifying and explaining the three phases of analogy, pivot, and analogue in these poems and others like them is a good exercise for the students in preparing for this speech assignment. It also builds in their minds the connotation that the Extended-Analogy Sequence is somewhat poetic and characteristically ceremonial, and calls for discriminating taste and judgment.

#### SPEECH CRITIQUES IN THE FOURTH YEAR

In all these assignments and class performances, as was mentioned earlier, the teacher should have in mind the arrangement of the larger units of the talk, and of the smaller units only inasmuch as they clarify the structure or expedite the rhetorical movement of these large blocks of thought. In his classroom critique of a talk, therefore, he may mention in passing, and if necessary occasionally insist upon, the elements of vocal variety which the student should have mastered in the second year and the elements of bodily action which should be the legacy of the third year, but the chief basis of criticism and evaluation will still be the clearness with which the steps of the assigned rhetorical sequence are followed. The class may be encouraged to "listen for the clicks" as the speaker "shifts gears" in moving from one point to another in the talk. These "clicks" are topical sentences or concise transitional paragraphs which, while not consisting of a bald enumeration of points, are yet clear demarcations between the various parts of the sequence.

Many devices will suggest themselves to the teacher in his effort to help the students acquire this skill in clear transitions. For instance, all the members of the class may be instructed to raise their hands when they hear a clear transition made in a talk. In another round of talks, the student may be allowed to choose any sequence among those listed above, without informing either teacher or class of the sequence he has selected. When his talk is over, another student is then called upon by the teacher to name and explain the steps of the sequence which the speaker employed. Knowing that they may be called upon to identify the pattern, the class will "listen for the clicks" more intently than ever. If this assignment becomes too difficult because of the great similarity that exists between some sequences, the choice may be limited to four patterns quite distinct

from each other, such as The Five-Step Motivated Sequence, The Problem-Solving Plan, The Hostile-Audience Plan, and The Little Method.

#### SUPPORTING ACTIVITIES

Because of the greater maturity of the students and the amount of previous instruction and practice they have had in public speaking by the fourth year, they are able to profit by a great variety of extracurricular activities to supplement class performances. The speech contest is still a useful device, but a better one, because of its prestige in the minds of the students, is an occasional debate with some high school or some other minor seminary in the vicinity. If this is done, those students who are most heavily engaged in these debates may be excused from some of the assignments listed above and may even give their set debate speeches in class periods for the criticism of their classmates. Their preparation for the debate can be made the occasion for much skillful use of the Problem-Solving Plan for the set speech, and the Hostile-Audience Plan for the rebuttal.

#### SEMESTER EXAMINATIONS

In the fourth year more than in the previous years it is desirable to give semester examinations in the theoretical content of the course. It is not too much to expect the students to retain in their memories, at least for the duration of the course, all the steps of all the sequences and the major points of the teacher's explanation of each sequence. If these patterns later drop from memory, it may reasonably be hoped that the experience gained in working with them for a year will carry over into whatever speech composition the students undertake in later years. They will at least have learned the need for planning the sequence of the larger units of a talk and for doing so on the basis of the psychological set of the listeners. If they have learned this principle well, the specific objective of the fourth year speech course has been achieved.

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*More than one hundred thousand persons were enrolled in adult education programs conducted during the past school year by 80 Catholic schools and 10 dioceses.*

## THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS\*

### ATTITUDES OF CATHOLIC HIGH-SCHOOL GIRLS TOWARDS AUTHORITY by Mother Mary David Morse, O.S.U., M.A.

This study aimed to find out the attitudes of Catholic high-school girls toward school authority, parental authority, Church authority, and civic authority. A questionnaire was administered to 233 girls in one Catholic high school for girls in the East.

The data revealed that the majority of the girls indicated that they would not be disobedient, despite any reluctance they might feel. Some, however, declared that they would assert their own authority. The general findings seem to indicate that there would be a greater willingness to submit to authority if the adolescent's need for being trusted was satisfied. There was no significant difference in the attitudes of pupils in the four high-school years studied, but the girls of the upper classes tended to reason more clearly and recognized that those exercising authority received their power from God. There was an indication that all the girls saw the necessity of authority.

### A RATING SCALE CONSTRUCTED TO MEASURE THE WILL TRAIT IN HIGH-SCHOOL SOPHOMORE BOYS by Sister Mary Alcantra Schneider, O.S.F., M.A.

This rating scale to measure the will trait in high-school sophomore boys was devised by means of the Thurstone Rank Order Method, which was originally developed to obtain attitude scales.

Statements indicative of varying degrees of the will trait were obtained from high-school instructors and from literature. Over a hundred of these statements were sent to twenty-five judges to be sorted into an evenly graduated series of manifestations of the will trait. Ratings of the judges were recorded, cumulative results were tabulated, scale values and *Q* values of the statements were determined from graphs which had been plotted from a table of accumulative proportions. On the basis of these values, a final list of twelve statements each for two forms of a rating scale was

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\* Microfilms of these M.A. dissertations may be obtained through the interlibrary loan department of The Catholic University of America; information on costs will be sent on request.

chosen to form as uniformly graduated a series of scale values as possible.

A reliability coefficient of .86 was obtained in correlating scores of Form A with those of Form B of the scale after these two forms had been applied to 197 sophomore high-school boys in five high schools by three teachers for each boy.

THE EDUCATIONAL WORK OF THE SISTERS OF NOTRE DAME DE NAMUR IN JAPAN by Takako Catherine Ozaki, M.A.

This study traces in chronological order the educational work of the Sisters of Notre Dame de Namur in Japan. Since their arrival in 1924 they have established four high schools and one college. Important phases of the growth and development of their schools, such as the staff, the student body, programs of study, co-curricular activities, buildings, financial support, and accreditation are treated. The changes brought about by World War II are presented in detail.

A STUDY ON MEXICAN MINOR SEMINARIES by Rev. Adolfo Gonzalez, O.F.M., M.A.

This study sought to determine whether there are any important differences in personality trends between a group of seminarians in Mexico and a lay group of Mexican boys of the same ages.

The Mental Health Test, edited by the California Test Bureau, was translated into Spanish and administered to 150 seminarians and to 150 lay students.

The results showed that the scores made by the seminarians on the following traits: "Feelings of Inadequacy," "Close Personal Relationships," "Inter-Personal Skills," and "Social Participation," were significantly lower than those of the lay group. The investigator suggested that the tendency in American personality tests to equate "good adjustment" with extroversion may be responsible for the unexpected results.

A FACTORIAL ANALYSIS OF TYPING ACHIEVEMENT by Sister Mary Annice Kellen, O.S.F., M.A.

This study aimed to determine some of the factors which influence typing speed and accuracy. Standardized tests of mechanical apti-

tude, language skill, working speed and accuracy, clerical ability, and intelligence were administered to a group of 100 girls. From the scores Pearson product-moment coefficients of correlations were computed.

The results indicated that the factors tested showed little relationship to typing speed and accuracy. Since the coefficients between the tests were low, the investigator assumed that variance among typists is to be accounted for in terms other than those made use of in this study.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CATHOLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN TERMS OF COUNSELOR PREPARATION AND SELECTED PROVISIONS FOR STUDENT GUIDANCE by Martin Joseph Lynn, M.A.

The purpose of this study was twofold: to ascertain to what extent a selected group of Catholic high-school counselors meet the state standards for certification of counselors; and to compare provisions made for guidance in a selected group of Catholic high schools with those recommended by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

In regard to the seven main courses required by state departments of education, there is no appreciable difference between counselors in Catholic high schools in states that require counselor certification and counselors working in states that do not require certification. It would seem that in this sample certification is not a strong motivation in counselor preparation.

The second part of this comparative study is based on the data obtained from questionnaires returned by 235 Catholic high schools and on the essential guidance services recommended by the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

The results showed that the provisions for guidance in the 235 Catholic high schools compared favorably with the guidance services recommended by the National Association with the following exceptions: (1) Only 71 of the 235 Catholic high schools provided an exploratory course in occupations. (2) Catholic high schools in the sample had a systematic follow-up of graduates who went to college but the follow-up of students who went directly to work or who dropped out of high school was sporadic.



THE ATTITUDE OF PARENTS TOWARDS FACTORS IN THE HOME  
WHICH INFLUENCE ADOLESCENT PERSONALTY DEVELOPMENT by  
Rev. Anthony Gregori, M.A.

In this study adolescent personality was studied in relation to the home as a dominant factor. The parents of fifty boys and girls selected from the senior class of a central Catholic high school in Montana participated in the study.

The first part of the study dealt with the adolescent in the home. The nature and determinants of personality were considered with special emphasis on the role of the family as the greatest determinant in the development of a well-integrated personality.

Having dealt with the general aspects of the problem, the investigator considered the relationship between environmental factors and the personality of the adolescent. Studies that have been made on the relationship between family situations and personality development show evidence in support of the hypothesis that the one has a definite influence on the other.

The results of the interviews with the parents indicated that factors in the home do contribute to the development of the personality of the adolescent. It was evident that the parents were aware of the influences of the home and family on personality development and they showed that they regarded them as important.

ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS RELATED TO TELEVISION VIEWING BY  
HIGH SCHOOL BOYS by Rev. Bernard A. Harding, O.S.S.T., M.A.

The purpose of this study was to obtain relevant information regarding the relationship of television viewing with academic characteristics of high school boys. Two hundred high-school boys participated in the study.

The findings indicate: (1) The mean number of hours spent weekly viewing television in grades nine to twelve was 15.9. The amount of time ranged from 12.6 hours in grade nine to 16.4 hours in grade twelve. (2) There was no evidence that television interfered with homework to any appreciable extent nor with leisure time activities for the particular group participating in this study. (3) The coefficient of correlation between the amount of time spent weekly viewing television and the general averages of the participants was not statistically significant.

The investigator concluded that only after a thorough study of each student could one truly estimate the effect of television upon academic achievement.

AN EXAMINATION OF THE INFLUENCE OF THE FACTOR OF RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT ON SEX DIFFERENCES IN NINTH-GRADE ALGEBRA ACHIEVEMENT by Sister Mary Rosalyn Sullivan, O.S.F., M.A.

To examine the influence of the factor of rural and urban school environment on sex differences in ninth-grade algebra achievement, 512 freshmen algebra students from 20 rural and urban high schools in the Midwest participated in this study. The rural schools selected had enrollments fewer than 150, whereas the urban school enrollments exceeded 800.

Each student was administered the California Test of Mental Maturity, the Iowa Every Pupil Test of Basic Skills in Arithmetic, and an algebra test compiled by the investigator. To compare sex differences and the factor of location upon algebra achievement, the students were divided into four groups: rural boys, rural girls, urban boys, and urban girls. Comparisons were obtained by calculating the means, standard deviations, sigmas of the means, differences, standard errors of the difference, and critical ratios for each part of the tests for each group.

Results seem to indicate that the girls participating in this study were superior to the boys since they excelled in four tests whereas the boys excelled in only three tests. The urban students surpassed the rural students in eight of the eleven statistical comparisons.

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*Monsignor William E. McManus, superintendent of schools in the Archdiocese of Chicago, has been awarded the Officer's Cross of the Order of Merit by the President of Germany for promoting the German-American student exchange program.*

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*The Department of Nursing of Boston College Graduate School has received a grant of \$125,000 from the U. S. Public Health Service.*

## HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES

**College enrollment** reached 3,258,556 this fall, according to figures compiled by the U. S. Office of Education. It will probably be at 3,500,000 before the school year is over. Last fall's figure was 3,068,417. In a decade it is expected to pass 6,000,000. The total college freshman class was 7 per cent larger than last year's, largely because there was a 9.9 per cent increase in the number of girls entering college; there was only a 5.2 per cent rise in the number of boys. Last year the number of girls was only 2.6 per cent larger than the previous year. The number of freshman enrolled in engineering courses dropped 13 per cent from last year. One possible reason for the drop in freshman engineering enrollments, it was suggested, could be that enrollments are up by like proportions in physics and mathematics. The American Institute of Physics reported that partial returns from its physics-enrollment survey show that the numbers of students taking that subject are continuing to increase. They have been rising at about 10 per cent a year. Another reason for the drop in engineering may be that engineering schools have been raising entrance requirements.

**More than half a million students** will take tests of abilities or aptitudes this year, which they hope will help open to them the doors of one out of about 350 colleges, declared officials of Educational Testing Service, meeting in Princeton, New Jersey, last month. By 1965, it has been predicted, virtually all of the nation's four-year, liberal arts or engineering colleges will be requiring such tests. Though E.T.S. spends 10 per cent of its budget on improving tests, the test-makers said that they are trying hard to prevent the growth of a myth of the omnipotence of the test. Colleges should use them as a secondary criterion, after the high-school record, for admissions purposes. The test-makers stressed the things their product cannot do. No test will fathom a child's innate intelligence. None will be precisely accurate, let alone infallible. For one thing, a human being has more dimensions than any test so far devised can measure. Tests cannot get at the determination or desire that educators call motivation. They cannot measure a person's sense of values or ability to get along with people.

**Drastic increases in federal and state aid** to public institutions of higher learning, with continued low tuition, would result in these institutions' absorbing at least five-sixths of the nation's college enrollment within ten to twelve years, maintained Dr. Seymour E. Harris, chairman of the Department of Economics at Harvard University, in a letter to *The New York Times* (November 23, 1958). In ten years, Dr. Harris pointed out, publicly controlled institutions have absorbed 85 per cent of the increase in college enrollment and raised their proportion from 49 to 58 per cent. He proposed that higher education be financed to a greater degree through credit and higher tuition. State governments could increase their tuition receipts by \$2 to \$3 billion and save the taxpayers a large part of this. Then they could use a substantial part for scholarships, thus helping the genuinely poor, able and well-motivated student not only with low tuition but, where necessary, with funds for room and board also.

**To help colleges and universities** in the solution of what is generally recognized as the most critical problem in higher education—the need for qualified college teachers—the American Council on Education last month embarked on a major project. Supported by a grant from the Ford Foundation, the Council began free distribution of 175,000 copies of *College Teaching as a Career*, a booklet which offers the testimony of such noted teachers and writers in education as Mark Van Doren, Reuben G. Gustavson, T. V. Smith, and Fred M. Hechinger. President Arthur S. Adams of the Council in announcing the project to aid in the recruitment and training of teachers said that the Council's program is designed to supplement programs with the same objective sponsored by many other governmental and nongovernmental agencies. For example, fellowships for one thousand prospective college teachers will be supplied next fall under the National Defense Education Act of 1958. The Woodrow Wilson Fellowship Foundation has increased the number of fellowships annually to one thousand, and the National Science Foundation, with a substantially enlarged appropriation, will offer more than two thousand predoctoral fellowships during the current fiscal year. Numerous smaller programs are also in operation.

**Leading in occupation choices** of high-school students in the St.

Louis area for the second consecutive year are engineering, teaching, and secretarial service. Almost three thousand high-school seniors participating in a precollege orientation program, held at Saint Louis University in October, listed their choices of thirty-four occupations toward which they wanted to direct their college studies. Almost 13 per cent of the students picked engineering, while 10 per cent said they wanted to enter the teaching field. Secretarial service was the choice of about 6 per cent, and mathematics was fourth with slightly more than 5 per cent. Other fields chosen among the top ten were, in order, nursing, chemistry, medicine, business administration, journalism, and law.

**National League for Nursing**, through action by its Board of Directors at a special meeting last month, reaffirmed its role in the future of accreditation of diploma nursing programs and so informed the American Hospital Association. The House of Delegates of the American Hospital Association had sent to the board a resolution requesting the National League for Nursing to join with it and with the American Medical Association in establishing an independent joint commission on the accreditation of hospital schools of nursing. A request in this resolution asked the League to defer the deadline date for provisional accreditation—presently December 31, 1959—for review of the matter. The response of the League stated that accreditation of hospital nursing programs is its responsibility and that action on the matter of deferring the deadline for provisional accreditation will be taken in February, 1959.

**Approximately seventy-five new scholarships** for study in Latin America will be added to those offered for 1959-60 by the U. S. Government under the Inter-American Cultural Convention program. The Institute of International Education (1 East 87th Street, New York 21, New York), which administers the Government student scholarship programs, will accept applications for the new grants until January 15, 1959. Those who have already applied for IACC scholarships need not make out new applications, but should notify the Institute that they wish to be considered for the additional grants. The scholarships cover round-trip transportation, tuition, and maintenance for one academic year.

## SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES

**The awarding of school letters for academic achievement** has been recommended by a panel of speakers at the annual teachers' institute of the Indianapolis Archdiocese. The original recommendation for awarding school letters as a spur to scholastic excellence was made by Sister Mary Janet, of the Sisters of Charity, principal of St. Mary's High School, Lansing, Michigan. The panelists expressed the opinion that school letters should be awarded for achievement in such extracurricular activities as choir, glee club, band, laboratory projects and the like, as well as for scholastic excellence. Plans were presented whereby students would be awarded block letters on the basis of points accumulated during the scholastic year through proficiency in academic subjects as well as in athletics and other extracurricular activities.

**Each year approximately 200,000 of our ablest high-school graduates** do not go to college. Some of these students are without proper testing, counseling, guidance, and some are without funds. This assertion is made in a recent issue of *The Educational Record* by President John A. Perkins, of the University of Delaware. In "Operation Schoolboy," Dr. Perkins describes how, with the orbiting of Sputnik, national pride was given a sharp setback by failure to win or place in the satellite race, but within a reasonable time the "operation" approach and state of mind enabled the United States to finish in the money by orbiting the Explorer. On the other hand, Dr. Perkins writes, contrast this national determination to be efficiently self-governing in this matter with the national lethargy in respect to "Operation Schoolboy." Dr. Perkins admits that there has been activity—the White House Conference, the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, and a myriad of bills introduced into Congress for general aid to education with a direct relationship to the national security. Because of the piecemeal, stopgap nature of this activity, it is no exaggeration to say that "Operation Schoolboy has not as yet had its first count-down." Stating the issue bluntly, the Delaware educator says, "If Schoolboy U.S.A. is to match Schoolboy U.S.S.R., Americans are going to have to give more than lip service to the national importance of Operation Schoolboy."

It is not possible for a school to "maintain an attitude of neutrality toward religion," asserted His Excellency Archbishop Amleto Giovanni Cicognani, Apostolic Delegate of the United States, at the dedication of Stamford Catholic High School, Stamford, Connecticut. Moral principles and fundamental truths are either affirmed or denied in a school. It is wrong, Archbishop Cicognani continued, to think that it is enough for the school to provide for subjects of knowledge and learning and maintain an attitude of neutrality toward religion. Such neutrality is not possible. The new Stamford school is coeducational at present, but as soon as circumstances permit it will be a coinstitutional school—one in which boys and girls are instructed separately using certain facilities like auditorium, gymnasium, and science laboratories at different times. Archbishop Cicognani said such "separate schooling for boys and girls befits their respective temperaments and is more conducive to their adequate formation."

His Eminence, Francis Cardinal Spellman, Archbishop of New York, has established a \$50,000 fund in honor of his father and mother, the late Mr. and Mrs. William Spellman, the income of which will be used to provide scholarships for deserving students at Cardinal Spellman Central Catholic High School, in Brockton, Massachusetts. Previously, His Eminence had given the school \$100,000 for an auditorium to be named for Archbishop Cushing.

The drama of Wall Street is a reality to students at Brentwood Senior High School, Brentwood, Pennsylvania. A high-school investment club has become an absorbing extracurricular activity, reports William P. Douglass in a recent issue of *The Clearing House*. Douglass says that education should be preparation for life, and the stock market is a part of life. Student stockholders operate the investment club as a corporation. An elected board of directors in turn elects a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, administrative assistant, and public relations director. Policy is determined by the board, while the officers act as managers of the club. Since they have become stockholders, business education students are finding the financial section of the newspapers taking interest precedence over sports and comic pages. *The Wall Street Journal* is delivered daily at the school.

**First discipline, then knowledge**, says Frank E. Hill, principal of Wenham Junior High School, Wenham, Massachusetts, writing recently in *The Massachusetts Teacher*. "In all situations, in all capacities, order and progress is the goal of human endeavor. Principals need it, superintendents pray for it, and teachers should demand it. Although to some teachers classroom discipline comes easily and naturally, to others it becomes a dreaded daily contest. Suggestion: Establish firm discipline. No uproarious jokes, no funny stories early in the year. Keep those for later, after the classroom behavior pattern has been well set.

**Big problems in math teaching have been ignored** by recent research in favor of little ones. Where a major problem was attacked, it often turned out to be too much for the one person who went at it. So says a new U. S. Office of Education pamphlet (Bulletin 1958, No. 4) summarizing some 120 research projects of recent years. The research studies showed: (1) High-school pupils are strongly influenced by their math teachers in deciding to pursue math studies. (2) Tests and previous math marks are good predictors of success in high-school math. The research studies failed to show: (1) Why math teachers can influence students. (2) What motivates students to pursue the study of mathematics. One research project showed that students learned as much in classes of 40 to 50 as in classes of 6 to 10. Another found that ability grouping showed no consistent advantage. The important thing, it appeared, was a good teacher.

**Guidance counselors in some schools** will get advance word on students admissions to Harvard, Yale, and Princeton under a new plan now in effect at the three universities. The guidance department at the applicant's high school will be informed as early as possible of the student's chances for admission. The guidance department can then advise the student accordingly. The three universities will classify all applicants into three categories. "Group A" students are assured of admission if they complete application procedures and if their academic and conduct records have not dropped significantly at the end of the year. "Group B" students have a reasonable chance for admission but no commitment can be made at this time. "Group C" students had better try elsewhere.



## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES

**Ten thousand members** of the Grand Rapids Council of Catholic Men have begun a project to promote religious instruction by parents in their homes of their pre-school and school-age children. Called the Family Life program, it was launched at the request of Bishop Allen J. Babcock of Grand Rapids. The men will work in teams of two and expect to make approximately 30,000 calls. Parents are being asked to pledge themselves to set aside at least two half-hour periods weekly to teach their youngsters their religion. A booklet prepared by Dominican Sister Jane Marie, of Marywood Academy, Grand Rapids, and the University of Notre Dame, will be used to guide their instruction.

By 1971 there will be 137,000 lay teachers in parochial schools, compared with 121,000 sisters. This is the prediction of Father Neil G. McCluskey, S.J., associate editor of *America*. Addressing the Chicago Serra Club, Father McCluskey said that at present there are about 97,000 nuns and 35,000 lay teachers in United States parochial schools. Current rates of increase in school enrollment, religious vocations and lay teachers, if they remain constant, will account for the change, he declared. He also urged that the laity play a more active role generally in Catholic education. Such steps as inviting laymen to serve on diocesan school boards and forming lay committees to plan and promote parochial school activity in the fields of educational television and education for handicapped children will foster lay activity. Father McCluskey asserted that the day is not too far distant when every self-respecting school system will operate its own educational television station. Current estimates place the number of mentally, emotionally or physically handicapped children in this country at five million and about one-quarter of these are Catholic. So far only a fraction is being cared for under Catholic auspices. Who can better help in planning and leading such projects than the Catholic laity? Father McCluskey also quoted Bishop Vincent S. Waters of Raleigh, N. C., that "the growth of the parochial school system will be so great that sisters will be supervisors of laymen, or of Third Order or Secular Institute member-teachers. Sisters will be restricted largely to the teaching of religion."

**The parochial and public school systems** are indispensably vital to the American system of education, Mayor Edward F. Voorde of South Bend, Indiana, told 300 religious and lay teachers at an annual institute. As a Catholic dedicated to the immense value of our own parochial system, and as a mayor charged with at least some responsibility for the continuing development of our public schools, Mayor Voorde declared that he is convinced that these two systems are absolutely compatible, completely complementary, and indispensably vital to our American system.

**The first nun to fly a jet plane**, Sister Mary Aquinas, a member of the science faculty at Holy Family College, Manitowoc, Wisconsin, asserted that children cannot begin too young to study science. Speaking at a science workshop for elementary school teachers in Montreal, Sister stated that science is nature and children should be brought to nature at an early age. In the first grade for example children can study plant and animal life—how to look after their pets and care for flowers. The scientific vocabulary can come from their environment. The whole program spirals until by the time they reach the seventh grade they can trace air masses, have a working knowledge of wind currents, and generally be aware of God's wonders around them.

**Thirty years ago, only eleven states** had special certification requirements for elementary-school principals; possession of the elementary teacher's certificate was adequate qualification for becoming a principal in the other 37 states. In 1958, 45 states have some type of administrative certificate for elementary-school principals, and 23 of them require at least an M. A. A corollary to the raising of certification standards has been a dramatic upsurge in the educational level of principals. Three decades ago, two-thirds of the elementary-school principals held no academic degree; today better than two-thirds hold a master's degree. Writing in the *NEA Journal* (November, 1958), Mrs. Mary Dawson, assistant-editor of the *National Elementary Principal*, concludes that the elementary-school principalship has made great strides in recent years but there are areas for further progress in the many communities in which standards are still too low, or in which principals do not have available all the resources which they need.

## NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The people of California rejected taxation of private schools of less than collegiate rank at the polls last month by a vote of 2 to 1. The plurality by which exemption from a disabling state property tax was supported was much larger than that of 1952, the last time the question was on the ballot. Previous to 1952, exemption of private, nonprofit schools of less than collegiate rank was denied by California voters in the 1926 and 1933 elections. The tax would have affected 643 Catholic, 390 Protestant, and 43 Jewish and non-sectarian schools, which educate some 340,000 children. The vote last month was the climax of a struggle that began in 1951. In that year, the state legislature voted 108 to 3 to exempt private, nonprofit schools from state taxation, thus bringing California into line with the other forty-seven states. In 1952, the legislature's action was challenged by opponents of exemption and put before the people in a referendum measure. Exemption was upheld. Opponents then made a challenge in the courts. In June, 1956, the California Supreme Court ruled in favor of the exemption. In December, 1956, the U. S. Supreme Court refused to accept an appeal from this decision "for want of a substantial Federal question." Opponents then hired a professional petition circulator and his organization gathered enough signatures to place the question of tax exemption before voters on the 1958 ballot.

To say that Catholic schools withdraw large groups of children from the main stream of American life is an insulting, inflammatory and intolerant statement, charged Monsignor John B. McDowell, superintendent of schools in the Diocese of Pittsburgh, in answering an attack made on Catholic schools by Dr. Maurice Thomas, of the University of Pittsburgh, in a speech before the Western Pennsylvania Education Conference in October. Catholic people and Catholic teachers are dedicated to America, Monsignor McDowell went on. "Our schools are dedicated to the development of good citizens. We are Catholic and American and we teach our children to live in this same spirit." Dr. Thomas voiced concern over private schools, which he called "a kind of segregation." He said he disliked this as much as he does "political segregation" in Little Rock and Clinton.

The Protestant head of a secular university gave a warning last month that "leaving religion out of so much of our education" is a sure way toward "outright Marxism." Dr. Walter C. Langsam, president of the University of Cincinnati and a Lutheran, told a Religious Emphasis Week audience in Cincinnati that "by misinterpreting the sensible theory of separation of Church and State to mean the divorcement of religion from education, we have actually as a nation been favoring the antireligious and even atheistic elements of our population." As a result of this misinterpretation in many American schools, he said, "our nation has virtually become a fosterer of nonreligiousness."

The one-sided emphasis began with "men such as John Dewey," he continued, and the "pragmatic or material influence" of theorists like Dewey "has become very evident in many of our school and college curricula." Dr. Langsam declared that "one of the reasons for our national strength today is the system of education introduced yesterday by our forefathers—a system which was directly and unequivocally founded upon the wonderful words of St. Matthew: 'Man shall not live by bread alone, but every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God.'"

**A religious habit is no impediment** to teaching in an Ohio public school, the State's attorney general ruled last month. While sectarian teaching is forbidden in the public schools, wearing a distinctive garb does not amount to a teaching of religious doctrine, said Attorney General William Saxbe. Persons of any religious faith or of no faith may lawfully be employed to teach in the public schools, he added. The attorney general's statement was made in reply to a question from Randall Metcalf, Washington County Prosecuting Attorney. Mr. Metcalf's query asked: "Can members of a religious order teach in the public schools wearing the religious habit required by said order, and be compensated from public funds?" In submitting his query, Mr. Metcalf stressed that "there is no question so far as my office is concerned on the background or ability of these Sisters."

The question apparently arose when a local school district, which had been beset by financial problems, leased a Catholic school from the Diocese of Steubenville and employed a religious order to teach it.

The New York State Commissioner of Education last month instructed the Burnt Hills-Ballston Lake Central School District to provide transportation for parochial school children. A proposition to appropriate \$2,000 for transportation of parochial school pupils had been defeated in October by voters of the public school district, despite the fact that it had been pointed out that state aid would reimburse nearly all the cost of transporting the pupils to Catholic schools. Parents of parochial school children filed an appeal to the Commissioner of Education.

Lengthening the school day and the school year to provide better Catholic education was advocated in October by Father James Curtin, superintendent of schools in the Archdiocese of St. Louis, in a talk at a teachers' institute in Independence, Iowa. In spite of our increasing Catholic school facilities 150 per cent in the last decade, Father Curtin claimed that facilities now must be doubled again in the next ten years if we are to meet increasing enrollments. More time must be found in Catholic schools during the school day for teaching, he said, and teachers must be relieved in some way of many of the non-instructional duties they now perform.

A neighborly gift of \$1,600,000 was presented in October by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to the Sisters of Mercy to help them move their school from Tarrytown, New York, to Dobbs Ferry, New York. After sixty years in Tarrytown, the Sisters expect to have their school in operation in Dobbs Ferry by 1960. A high school in Dobbs Ferry will draw some 600 pupils compared to the 250 now enrolled at Tarrytown. In addition to the high school, the Sisters plan to build a college and an elementary school on their new site. Mr. Rockefeller said that the gift was made "in view of the pleasant and neighborly relations which have existed for so many years between the Sisters and members of our family."

As an answer to objections to Federal aid to education, Robert Heller, chairman of the National Citizens' Council for Better Schools, suggests that all future school tax increases be deducted from Federal income tax payments. School taxes now are deductible only from gross income. Mr. Heller outlines his plan in detail in the summer (1958) issue of the *Harvard Educational Review*.

## BOOK REVIEWS

WHAT HAPPENED TO RELIGIOUS EDUCATION? (The Decline of Religious Teaching in the Public Elementary School 1776-1861) by William Kailer Dunn. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1958. Pp. xv + 346. \$5.00.

Originally written as a doctoral dissertation for Johns Hopkins University, the present volume incorporates years of research and careful analysis in a subject that is of capital importance at the present time. It is not only the first thoroughgoing study of the decline of religious instruction in the American public schools, but the first Catholic evaluation of the complicated historical factors which brought the decline about.

Through eight chapters of documented evidence, the author conclusively disproves the majority opinion in the McCollum case that the American people have traditionally separated secular and religious activities in the field of education. On the contrary, for three-quarters of a century there was no refusal to make the public schools agencies for the assertion of the claims of religion. "The vast majority of the Americans whose writings have been examined wanted freedom *of* religion but not freedom *from* religion." (p. 311)

Perhaps the most valuable contribution of the book is the detailed source material now made available, much of it for the first time, from persons and agencies that have long been regarded as the founders of the tax-supported school system in the country. Horace Mann appears as a disillusioned Calvinist turned Unitarian who led the liberal Protestant elements of his day in a crusade to teach a diluted form of Christianity in which he and they believed, while excluding, in sequence, each of four alternate solutions to the dilemma of keeping religion in the public school curriculum, yet respecting the rights of conscience. There could be no question, according to Mann, of prescribing a set form of religious instruction since that would be reverting to establishment of religion and against the Constitution. Neither should schools be established and supported by the State while allowing the majority sect in a community to control religious instruction; otherwise "chaos would result, the Bible would decrease and the catechism would become dominant." Equally undesirable would be the State's withdrawal from education by leaving it all to private enterprise; this would place too heavy a

burden on the poor and force the churches to divide their ministers between education and the ministry. Least of all should the separate denominations be assisted and supported by the government in operating a confessional school system; besides reasons of practicality, the anti-sectarian bias of Mann and his followers precluded even a serious consideration of this possible solution.

In view of his extended study of the subject, the author's concluding recommendation becomes highly pertinent. There have been two traditions in American history: the social tradition that "religion belongs" and the legal tradition that religious liberty must be guaranteed. Both must be kept intact and also balanced. In the field of public education, the legal tradition has been allowed to cripple, if not practically destroy, the social one. Consequently a restoration of the belief that "religion belongs" is one of the main tasks of educators devoted to the American way of life.

Its competent scholarship, objective treatment of a delicate subject, and smooth diction that makes easy reading should recommend this book to every teacher who is concerned with preserving religious values in public and private schools. An extensive bibliography and summary index will be of service either for handy reference or further writing in a field that too many Catholics have ignored, and which needs Catholic interest and exploration to neutralize the heavy impact of secularism in public education.

JOHN A. HARDON, S.J.

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THE STUDY OF RELIGION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Edited by Nicholas C. Brown. Contributors: F. Ernest Johnson, Arthur E. Sutherland, Bert James Loewenberg, John Thomas Farrell, Jack Allen, Sister Mary Nona, O.P., and Eugene E. Dawson. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1958. Pp. vii + 229. \$2.50.

This volume is a report from the Conference on Religion and Public Education, which was sponsored by the Committee on Religion and Education of the American Council on Education, held at

Arden House in Harriman, New York, on March 10-12, 1957. It represents the fourth in a series of reports published by the A.C.E. on the appropriate relationship of religion to public education in the United States.

Arranged in a logical sequence, the report gives the full text of the seven papers read at the Conference along with selected comments from the sixty educators who were invited to assist in evaluating the present position of the A.C.E. on religion and education and in recommending ideas for the future. As one of the delegates who attended the Conference, the reviewer feels that the report does substantial justice to the three-days' proceedings that were not nearly as peaceful or placid as the volume might suggest.

Dr. Johnson's "Summary of Policies and Recommendations" reviewed and interpreted the current attitude of the A.C.E. on religion and education, with an eye to formulating new policies if necessary. Among other significant judgments, Johnson feels that more attention should be paid to the demands of the local community which, in any case, "are bound to be a powerful determinant in the making of school policy," and consequently need to be considered in planning religious integration for the public schools. National or federal policies may arbitrarily limit the legitimate autonomy of a local community.

Professor Sutherland of the Harvard Law School clarified certain obscurities which handicap the educator on the legal side of teaching religious values in tax-supported institutions. At the same time, he frankly pointed out the worse than obscurities in the law itself, when touching on the subject of religion. The essential term "sectarian" is not only legally fluid but sometimes contradictory within the same jurisdiction. Thus the Old Testament and the Lord's Prayer seem to be nonsectarian in New Jersey, but the Gideons Bible (which contains the New Testament and parts of the Old) is forbidden under the State constitution.

Certainly the most substantial contribution to the Conference was Sister Mary Nona's paper on "Some Religious Aspects of Elementary American History." Within the limits she set herself, she gave the delegates a carefully reasoned and nicely balanced study of how, in practice, a typical subject like American history cannot be adequately taught without religious integration. The general acceptance of her thesis by the Conference somewhat neutralized the negative



effect of a study like Dr. Loewenberg's which in two short paragraphs asked no less than twelve rhetorical questions on the meaning and value of religion, with a view to discrediting its importance in the field of education.

Even a cursory reading of *The Study of Religion in the Public Schools* should help dissipate either the illusion that "all is well with public education" or the facile optimism that religious values can be retained (or regained) for tax-supported schools without study and concerted effort. Catholic educators need to be alerted through volumes like the present to a sense of duty in meeting the most serious crisis in American education.

JOHN A. HARDON, S.J.

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LEARNING ABOUT CHILDREN by Rebekah Shuey, Esther Young, and Elizabeth Woods. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1958. Pp. 294. \$3.60.

Sometimes children are a bore, a burden, or just a job to teenagers, but knowledge has the power to change one's pattern of thought. To furnish such knowledge is the purpose of this book. After studying these pages, it should not be hard for teenagers to shed their misconceptions of children and see them as they really are: individuals with unbelievable potentialities and a very definite set of personal characteristics. "Growing up" is presented as a fascinating drama that will hold the attention of both boys and girls. If approached with thought and attention, this book should give to the student vision—the pattern of maturation of a child from infancy to twelve. It will be a means of integration—the children they know will suddenly skip across the pages. But education is sterile and useless unless it produces action. The attractive style and teen-age language of this book will motivate high-schoolers to work with children, thereby learning to know and love them.

In this book the student gets a glimpse of the American family. Each family is different, socially and economically, but each must contribute to the well-being of every member. Privileges and

responsibilities of both parents and children are stressed. The family council may be an eye opener to many a student. Doing things together strengthens the bond of family love. For the teacher in the Catholic school, this idea of doing things together can lead to a discussion of such things as: celebration of feast days, baptismal anniversaries, Advent wreaths, family Mass and Communion Sunday, and family prayers.

Throughout the book there is treated, in a manner interesting to teen-agers, the whole cycle of growth and development of the child. The importance of nutrition is stressed as is the value of play. In addition there are chapters on books and music for the child. In brief all those elements which go into the rearing of the child in a manner best suited to his intellectual, physical and character growth are considered in a forthright and interesting way.

The format of the book facilitates easy reading. The bold print and italics subdivide the material readily and will make study for both teacher and student an easy task. The subject matter is well organized, concise and applicable to high-school intelligence. It can be used at any high-school level of teaching. Each chapter lists numerous problems that can be used by the teacher to enrich the program. It should be noted that the teacher in the Catholic school will have to supplement the material in this book with facts about the moral and religious training of the child. Spiritual and religious development parallels the physical development and should keep pace with it. This information must be taught if the Catholic school is to fulfill its primary purpose—the training of the whole person for life here and hereafter. Keeping this in mind the book could very well be used in the Catholic school. It can be a real motivation in forming a desire to know and love children, and so be one bond in the strengthening of the family life.

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THE LANGUAGE OF ART by Philip C. Beam. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1958. Pp. xi + 948. \$7.50.

Every reader, non-artist as well as artist will benefit by this comprehensive survey covering the entire span of art in terms of

principles, techniques and art content in history. It is a somewhat new approach in its integration of text and comparative illustrations. It is an introduction to the nature, methods and history of art. Principles found in accepted works of art are discussed and stand out both in the text and reproductions from many periods. Sources are so arranged that they make comparison easy.

This combined study of art affords the reader an opportunity to derive pleasure and knowledge as he acquaints himself with Mr. Beam's excellent work dealing with the artistic expression of the centuries and current theories about them.

The teacher of art will be particularly interested in it as a text. It emphasizes all three of the major elements necessary for teaching art appreciation and an understanding of the philosophy, techniques and history of art. Art students should be greatly aided and their visual experience intensified by seeing art for themselves and themselves as artists.

The title is well chosen, for the content of the book is such as to express and communicate what art is. This work supplies aid for a better understanding and appreciation of art. The old and new, familiar and unfamiliar, are reviewed and details covered where useful.

The text is divided into three main parts with each chapter treating various aspects of art. Throughout the chapter, reproductions serve as examples to illustrate broad ideas and general principles as types or ideas. The reader is led to supplement his knowledge from his own experience. Part One deals with the nature of art covering reality, perception, human equation, nature and universals and the visual arts. An example of the quality of these topics is the author's treatment of human equation where he skillfully carries out his intention to determine the universal traits of human nature and their role in art. Part Two is concerned with the methods of art covering representation in painting, drawing, sculpture and the many modes. The abstract arts, spatial and color design, expression of ideas, the conditions of man and the principle of fitness are but a few of the well treated subjects. Part Three states historical factors with period development. An unusual chapter on individuality enhances this section.

The appendix is an extensive outline of art history and clarifies the meanings of the commonly used terms in their position in time. It could serve as a profitable aid for general reference.

Although the book is detailed and factual, it supplies numerous benefits as a text, leisure reading and for reference. This publication's value is enriched by photographs, drawings and in some cases, cross-section and compositional diagrams. It is integrated with such ease as to give a new perspective on art. The reader's better understanding may lead him to new experiences in art.

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**GUIDANCE SERVICES IN SCHOOLS** by Clifford P. Froehlich. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958. Pp. ix + 383. \$5.75.

Entitled *Guidance Services in Smaller Schools*, the first edition of this book (1950) was an effective plea for the introduction and maintenance of guidance services in smaller secondary schools. The current edition is much wider in scope. Since guidance services are now a characteristic of all good schools, this book is "dedicated to the improvement of guidance services in all schools—large or small, rural or urban, secondary or elementary." Not surprisingly, therefore, there are a number of differences to be noticed in the two editions.

At the time that the first edition was published, Froehlich was working with the U. S. Office of Education. He had an opportunity to make firsthand contact with the programs in a number of schools throughout the country. The first edition was replete with examples of guidance practices that were illustrative of principles stated in the book. Now at the University of California, Froehlich has once again employed materials from many school systems to substantiate his points. He refers to practices in such diverse systems as New Haven, Connecticut, North Olmsted, Ohio, and Santa Ynez, California. It is no overstatement to note that no matter what the background of the guidance worker he will find examples of guidance practices in schools that approximate his own school situation. The wide use of specific practices is a potent means of showing skeptical or recalcitrant teachers and administrators that guidance services can be introduced into any educational setting.

The second edition contains an excellent chapter on "Guidance Services in Elementary Schools." Written in collaboration with Frank L. Sievers, Chief of the Guidance and Personnel Section of the U. S. Office of Education, this chapter treats of the conflicting points of view that permeate any discussion of the roles of teachers and of guidance in the elementary school setting. It is one of the few chapters in the book in which concepts are given priority over the means of effecting desirable guidance practices.

Revised in the light of recent literature, the chapter on "Research and Evaluation" is noteworthy. Attention is focused on the kinds of research problems that can be handled adequately by school counselors and a number of instances of "local type" research are cited. It is Froehlich's contention that "evaluation is the cornerstone upon which improved guidance programs are built."

Each chapter in this book is interspersed with "Thinking It Through" sections. These sections are comprised of questions raised by Froehlich to help the reader to think about and make sense out of the principles treated in the text and in the suggested readings. The annotated list of selected readings following each chapter will prove useful to in-service teachers and to students enrolled in introductory courses in guidance.

There is employed in this book a strong positive approach to guidance problems. The author does not straddle fences in discussing issues. In the chapter on counseling, for example, he makes clear his preference for an eclectic rather than a directive or non-directive position with respect to counseling theory and practice. In the chapter on "The Guidance Program and the Curriculum," he views the curriculum as "all the planned learning experiences that the school provides for its pupils," and demonstrates how guidance services can influence and enrich the curriculum. In both editions, Froehlich dignifies the position of counselors by referring to them as Counselor Jones and Counselor Smith rather than as simply Mr. Jones and Mr. Smith. If such thinking were widespread, it would not be rash to expect counselors to achieve a status position commensurate with their responsibilities.

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## BOOKS RECEIVED

### *Educational*

- Adams, John C., and others. *College Teaching by Television*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. Pp. 234. \$4.00.
- Ashley, O.P., Benedict. *The Arts of Learning and Communication*. Dubuque: The Priory Press. Pp. 622. \$3.45.
- Donlan, O.P., Thomas C., and others. *Christ and His Sacraments*. Dubuque: The Priory Press. Pp. 630. \$4.95.
- Fay, Leo C. *Improving the Teaching of Reading by Teacher Experimentation*. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Bookstore. Pp. 104. \$1.00.
- Flack, Michael J. *Sources of Information in International Educational Activities*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. Pp. 114. \$1.50.
- McCabe, Sheridan P. *The Self-Concept and Vocational Interest*. Washington, D. C.: Catholic University of America Press. Pp. 34. \$0.50.
- Ritamary, C.H.M., Sister (ed.). *Planning for the Formation of Sisters*. New York: Fordham University Press. Pp. 314. \$3.50.
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- Tauber, Maurice F., and others. *The Columbia University Libraries*. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. 320. \$5.00.
- U. S. Department of Labor. *1958 Handbook on Women Workers*. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office. Pp. 153. \$0.45.

### *General*

- Barnett, Clifford R. *Poland: Its People, Its Society, Its Culture*. New York: Grove Press, Inc. Pp. 471. \$2.45.
- Bongioanni, Fausto M. *Evidenzo Dell'Uomo Nel Lavoro*. Milan, Italy: Marzorati. Pp. 227.
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- Considine, Bob. *Bob Considine's Christmas Stocking*. New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc. Pp. 95. \$2.95.
- Corte, Nicolas. *The Origins of Man*. Trans. Eric Earnshorn Smith. New York: Hawthorn Books. Pp. 144. \$2.95.
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- de Bary, William Theodore, and others. *Sources of Indian Tradition*. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. 961. \$7.50.
- Frankard, Paul. *Analyse Critique de La Notion de Validité*. Louvain, Belgium: Editions Nauwelaerts. Pp. 140.
- Horizon*, Vol. I, No. 2 (November, 1958). New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc. Pp. 148. \$3.95.
- Jolivet, Regis. *The God of Reason*. Trans. Dom Mark Pontifex. New York: Hawthorn Books. Pp. 126. \$2.95.
- Knox, Ronald, and Cox, Ronald. *The Gospel Story*. New York: Sheed and Ward. Pp. 445. \$4.50.
- McNally, James J. *Litany at Nazareth*. New York: Joseph F. Wagner, Inc. Pp. 246. \$3.95.
- Ross, E. J. *Basic Sociology*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co. Pp. 488. \$4.75.
- Sciacca, Michele F. *Acte et Être*. Trans. Francis Authier. Paris: F. Aubier. Pp. 226.
- Shereghy, Basil. *Byzantine Rite Catholics*. St. Louis: Queen's Work. Pp. 24. \$0.10.
- Sheridan, Richard Brinsley. *The Rivals*. Great Neck, N. Y.: Barron's Educational Series. Pp. 176. \$0.65 paper; \$1.00 cloth.
- Sheridan, Richard Brinsley. *The School for Scandal*. Great Neck, N. Y.: Barron's Educational Series. Pp. 172. \$0.65 paper; \$1.00 cloth.
- Weiser, Francis X. *Handbook of Christian Feasts and Customs*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co. Pp. 366. \$4.95.
- Wikenhauser, Alfred. *New Testament Introduction*. Trans. Joseph Cunningham. New York: Herder and Herder, Inc. Pp. 580. \$7.80.
- Young, S.J., William J. (Trans.). *Finding God in All Things: Essays in Ignation Spirituality*. Chicago: Henry Regnery Co. Pp. 276. \$4.50.

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Because of popular demand, the article on *Human Evolution — 1956*, with Appendix, *The Present Catholic Attitude Towards Evolution*, has now been reprinted. This authoritative article, by Rev. J. Franklin Ewing, S.J., Ph.D., Professor of Physical Anthropology at Fordham University, is written in a non-technical style, and should be of particular interest to all Catholic students and educators. The article is now in its fourth reprinting. Order from: *Anthropological Quarterly*, The Catholic University of America Press, Washington 17, D. C.

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